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When in its December 1944 number College and Research Libraries adopted a type-page similar to that of the A.L.A. Bulletin, the thought was to issue three ninety-six-page numbers and one sixty-four-page number per year and thus to reduce paper consumption while presenting annually the customary amount of printed matter. Pressure for space, however, has rendered a deviation from this plan desirable for Volume VI. The present ninety-six-page number, taking the place of an expected sixty-four-page issue, has become possible through the action of the A.C.R.L. Board of Directors in authorizing an additional appropriation.

Maurice F. Tauber and Byron C. Hopkins are continuing to give assistance in the editorial conduct of College and Research Libraries.
The Value of Russian to the Reference Librarian

On the basis of his experience as reference assistant at the Harvard College Library and of study of the Russian language, Mr. Palmer treats a subject which is of new and growing importance in scholarly libraries.

The emergence of Russia as a nation unquestionably in the first rank is one of the major phenomena of our times. This historic fact calls for a re-examination of the place of the Russian language in the world in general and in the American research library in particular.

In number of speakers Russian is surpassed only by Chinese and English. For more than a century Russian literature has been internationally admired. And now the military and, with it, the economic and industrial power of the U.S.S.R. have been strikingly demonstrated to the world. But facts like these, important as they are, do not in themselves guarantee wide study and use of a language outside its own home.

What is more to the point, Soviet research has been very active in a great many fields of knowledge. Insofar as the demands on research libraries are concerned, it is the extent to which scientific, technical, and scholarly material of value is published in a language which counts most heavily. This material—unlike great works of literature—is seldom translated in full, and the investigator who wishes more than an abstract must go to the original.

Russian scholarly production has reached the point where materials in the Russian language have become important not merely to the growing number of specialists in Slavic history and literature but to large numbers of workers in the physical, biological, and social sciences. Russian undoubtedly ranks high among the relatively few languages in which much general scholarly literature is published.

Much, but by no means all, of this material is available in American libraries. For instance, comparison of the list of periodicals on chemistry indexed in the Letopis' Zhurnal'nykh Statet for 1938 with the Union List of Serials shows that most of the titles are available in this country; a few of the most important of them in a dozen or a score of libraries. On the other hand, almost one-third of the titles are not in the Union List at all and the high proportion of incomplete sets is very noticeable.

Use of Russian material, like its availability, is considerable but limited in comparison with the possibilities. Without any desire to accuse our scholars of neglecting matter pertinent to their studies, in all frankness we must admit that the unfamiliarity and reputed difficulty of the Russian language have been powerful restrictive factors. Another element which has no doubt led technologists to discount and neglect Russian findings is a certain reputation for inefficiency which the Russians earned during the early stages of their rapid industrialization.

The war has profoundly changed such attitudes as these. It has dramatized Russian achievements and shown that Russian industrial and technological development
was greatly underestimated. With the important place the Soviet Union is expected to fill in the postwar world it seems reasonable to expect that we shall find in the future more willingness to acquire some knowledge of the language and less readiness to neglect or minimize the use of Russian sources of information.

**Potential Use of Russian**

With the annual level of Russian book production around twenty-eight thousand titles and with several hundred periodicals of sufficient subject value to be indexed, there is plainly a great difference between the present very moderate use of this material in our libraries and the potential use should Russian become no more of a linguistic barrier than German is now. Just how much of this growth will be realized, and how soon, is unpredictable, but in expectation of it one large university library has undertaken an extensive program of instruction in Russian for its cataloging staff.

When this expected trend of greater use materializes, it will be quickly felt among reference librarians, for there are certain special reasons why readers need technical assistance in finding Russian books in a far larger than normal proportion of cases.

In the first place, Russian is written in a non-Roman alphabet. To the American library this means one of two things. It must either isolate its Russian books in a separate catalog or adopt a consistent system of transliteration so that cards in the Slavic alphabet may be interfiled with others. The latter solution is in line with our expectation that Russian books will become less and less a special preserve and more and more used for their subject content by persons other than Slavic specialists, but it gives rise to a number of problems.

There are thirty-two letters in the present-day Russian alphabet. The transliteration of about half of these \( (e.g., A = a, M = m, P = r) \) is obvious; others offer two or more likely possibilities (for instance the last letter of the alphabet, rendered \( ia \) by most American libraries, but \( ya \) more commonly outside of library circles, as witness Yalta); while a few letters (such as \( X = kh \)) are really baffling to the person inexperienced in such matters. Whenever a reader who does not know these rules wishes to look up a name or title in which one of the second or third group of letters occurs near the beginning, he will need assistance. Even a native Russian will need help at this point, as may be seen by comparing the way many Russians write their names in Roman letters with the renderings typical of American library catalogs (cf., Wassiliew, Vasilev; Ouchakoff, Ushakov).

**Transliteration of Russian**

These examples suggest another aspect of the interalphabetical problem. There is an “international” scheme for the transliteration of Russian, based upon the spelling of certain Slavic languages which use the Roman alphabet, notably Croatian and Czech, and this is rather widely used by scientific men in Central Europe. It is replete with diacritical marks, which is perhaps one reason why it is much more common for various groups to render Russian sounds as nearly as possible by letters indicating the corresponding sounds in their own language. Thus, if there is disagreement among English-speaking writers, librarians, and cartographers over such matters as \( ia \) versus \( ya \), it is nothing to the differences between the practices of different nations, as will be abundantly evident to anyone who stops to consider the diverse ways in which the Roman alphabet is used by various European languages.

For example, there is a Russian letter which we write \( sh \), because it is pronounced like \( sh \) in “shelf.” To the French-
man, however, it is like *ch* in "cher," and to the German, like *sch* in "Schuh." The Frenchman's *ch* means something else to us and we use it for another Russian letter (ч); and it represents still a third sound to the German, who uses it for the Russian letter X, for which we have improvised *kh*. The Frenchman has nothing really satisfactory for this last and is apt to use *ch* for it too, *faute de mieux*. The results of all this are illustrated by the the name of the Russian musical writer Чешихин. Even in the "international" style this would offer two possibilities: Чешихин (the form actually used by a Czech encyclopedia) or Чешихин (the less usual but more logical spelling based on Croatian). In Russian Composers and Musicians, this name appears as Cheshikhin; in Riemann's Musik Lexikon, as Tscheschichin; and in the French edition of Riemann, as Tschéchichine.

The writer has prepared a table showing the varying renditions by English, French, and German hands of those letters of the Russian alphabet which are thus susceptible of different interpretations, and examples could be multiplied at length; but enough has been said to show that this subject, which we may call comparative transliteration, can be very complicated and confusing. It is obviously a very fruitful field for the reference librarian, especially when we consider that most Russians who come to our shores are more familiar with the German and French ways of using our alphabet than with ours, and that our own scholars will be finding many of their references to Russian materials in continental sources.

Translating Russian

This suggests a related problem. The first reaction of many persons in dealing with Russian titles is to translate them, sometimes with a warning parenthesis such as Poggendorff's "(russ.)" but often without. The writer particularly remembers an occasion when a reader came to him with the unsolved residuum of a list of references which he had garnered mostly from footnotes in various sources and had been looking up in the catalog. Prominent among them were references to the Zeitschrift des Ministeriums für Völkische Aufklärung and the Bollettino del Ministero dell'Istruzione Pubblica. The routine explanation that things of this sort were cataloged under Germany and Italy proved not to be the solution. Closer scrutiny of the list revealed that the one personal name mentioned was decidedly Russian, and at once the mystery disappeared. All the references were to the Zhurnal Ministerstva Narodnago Prosveshcheniia, which title had simply been translated without warning into their own languages by the German and Italian writers who referred to it in their footnotes, no doubt under the impression that they were doing their readers a good turn. When the Russian title which has been so treated is not a well-known one like the Zhurnal, the problem—even if we are given fair warning by a parenthetical "in Russian"—becomes one of imagining what the Russian original might have been. Since it is the aim of this article to encourage the study of Russian rather than otherwise, perhaps it will be as well not to go into this aspect of the subject too deeply. Actually it is usually not as difficult as it sounds.

Other Stumbling Blocks

The field of Russian is strewn with other stumbling blocks of the sort which it is the special province of the reference librarian to remove. The Russians seem to be unusually fond of publication in serial form, with the result that monographs in series and separates from periodicals which are really substantial books, are often sought by author and title alone without reference to series or periodical of original publication.

JUNE, 1945
As we all know, locating material of this sort which has not been analyzed in the catalog is an easy way of making a reputation as a magician. Again, Russian indexing is not always all that it might be and the official book and periodical indexes, excellent in some ways, are very weak in cumulation. In dealing with situations like this, as well as with alphabetical problems, the reference librarian, with his craft of careful examination of reference books and great patience, can often obtain results which are beyond the reach of those whose knowledge of the language is unlimited but who lack the special experience of librarianship.

Hopefully that the reader is now fairly convinced that Russian is a language which will be important for American librarians and that its presence in a library bristles with situations which call for reference skill, we shall now look at the opposite side of the picture. It may be asked whether the time and effort required to study Russian is not more than the demand will justify. Just how much knowledge of the language is needed to cope with the problems suggested above? We have already referred to the reputedly great difficulty of Russian, but it is probably fair to say that this has been somewhat exaggerated. The alphabet is the first obvious barrier that is responsible for so many sins of transliteration and translation, but a few hours' study and a few days' practice will thoroughly demolish this bogey. As for grammar, it is true that the fine points of correct verb usage are very difficult, but reference work deals much more with the simpler noun-adjective system. Insofar as active operation, as distinct from passive recognition, is concerned, the main demand will be for turning the genitive case into the nominative (to obtain corporate entry forms and authors' names ready to be looked up in the catalog) and for filling out endings in words which have been abbreviated. As with most languages, the real problem is vocabulary. Though Russian uses a goodly number of international words, especially in scientific literature, of course the basic vocabulary is Slavic, and its relation to the more familiar Germanic and Italic tongues is distant enough that the recognition of cognate words, which is such an aid to English-speaking persons in the study of languages in the two great West European groups, is largely, though not wholly, absent.

However, it is not difficult to make a beginning on the special vocabulary which most concerns the reference librarian. The generic periodical titles (Trudy, Izvestiia, etc.) and words occurring in names of organizations (such as obshchestvo and naucho-issledovatel'skii), the names of the principal branches and subbranches of learning, and other words especially frequent in book titles, classification schemes, and indexes, will soon be met with, and a special effort may be made to learn them. The nature of reference work is such that many bibliographical questions may be answered definitely and confidently without involving more than a modicum of linguistic knowledge. The wider vocabulary and knowledge of reference books gradually gained will in due time prepare one for the undertaking of more advanced questions in which a larger body of Russian text must be scanned.

_A Formal Course in Russian_

It is, of course, possible to learn Russian by oneself, but in the opinion of the writer a formal course, however brief, is most helpful. On the other hand, a purely linguistic knowledge of Russian is only half the battle. It is the professional skill of the reference librarian and its adaptation to the special problems involved that count.

(Continued on page 231)
Extended College Library Service to Teachers

The generous utilization of nonbook teaching materials at the New Jersey State Teachers College, at Montclair, justifies the description here given jointly by Miss Cook, the college librarian, and Miss Heimers, director of the teaching aids service in the library.

THE COLLEGE LIBRARIAN derives much pleasure from hearing his library referred to as "the heart of the college." In particular, the librarian of a teachers' college or school of education points with pride to a per capita circulation of books four or five times that of the liberal arts college, as reported by Branscomb in Teaching With Books. But as teaching methods change it has become more and more necessary that the college library which has a part in the preparation of teachers provide not only the traditional library materials, i.e., books, pamphlets, magazines, and pictures, but every sort of teaching aid, with the equipment necessary for its use.

In the course of this paper the expression "teaching aid" will be used frequently. The collection at the New Jersey State Teachers College, at Montclair, amassed and administered by one of the authors of this article, includes charts, exhibits, slides and film slides, educational games, graphs, pictures, posters, maps, models, radio scripts, motion picture stills and scenarios, records and recordings, and various illustrated pamphlets and other publications. Units of work, lesson plans, the newest editions of textbooks, and files of state and local courses of study may well be considered a part of such a collection. The many weekly and monthly periodical services available for classroom use (World News of the Week, Current Events, Le Petit Journal, Science News-Letter, are familiar examples) deserve a place. The student teacher will also use globes, sand tables, relief maps made of all sorts of easily secured materials, dolls and puppets, and many other things which she and her pupils will be stimulated to make by the materials available to her. Films, omitted here, are discussed later in this article.

The collection of teaching aids built up at Montclair during the past six years has been made available to students and former students of the college, and selected lists for teachers in many subject fields have been published. Believing that the principles and procedures developed there may be of interest and value to librarians in similar institutions, the following summary has been prepared, with suggestions for the establishment of similar departments in other teachers' college libraries.

Newer Teaching Methods

In recent months a great deal has been said and written about "learning the G.I. way." Both educational periodicals and daily papers have been full of articles describing the Army and Navy methods of
training, with sand tables, demonstrations, film slides, motion pictures, etc. It is deplorable that training for war was needed to remind teachers that the most effective methods have always included the use of multisensory aids. The fundamental idea of "learning by doing" has been foremost in the manual training and vocational school and in the kindergarten and primary grades. Unfortunately, as the subject matter to be taught becomes more diversified and more complex, the teacher is apt to lose sight of the child's natural ways of learning and tries to get along, too often, with textbook and recitation, and even with the lecture, in the high school grades.

There are many reasons for unimaginative methods of teaching. Probably the most nearly universal is that the teachers find difficulty in laying their hands on inspirational materials which lead to creative activity for both teacher and pupil and away from imitation and verbal reproduction. Perhaps the teacher has fallen a prey to the common misconception of the term "visual aids," believes that motion pictures are the only materials to which the term may be applied, and is unable to use them for lack of equipment. After the war probably few schools will be without at least one sound projector, but even if no more are available teachers need not be handicapped in their use of multisensory aids.

The art teacher has never attempted to get along without paper and crayons. Perhaps the music teacher may have had to do without a piano, a radio, and even a phonograph and records, but she has always had a pitch pipe, her own voice, and the voices of her pupils for demonstration. Most of us learned geometry without ever going out to compute the height of the school building by measuring its shadow. Also, we read laboriously in Latin about a day in a Roman house, looked apathetically at a blurred picture in the textbook, and were denied the joy of making a model of clay, salt, and flour, or plasticine, and peopling it with a family of dolls in toga and tunic.

**Responsibilities of the College Library**

The library of a college preparing teachers has a great responsibility. It should provide not only the stimulus of books and of the information embodied in the printed word but also the actual materials with which the prospective teacher will work. Many teachers' college libraries have exhibit collections of textbooks, largely through the generosity and vision of the publishers. But these collections have now become almost static because of restrictions on paper. The collection of teaching aids is under no such restrictions. The sources from which one may secure pictures, graphs and charts, pamphlets, models, blueprints, film slides, maps, etc., are practically unlimited. And the resources of the human imagination, when stimulated to creative effort by all these riches, are unlimited also.

It is, then, the belief of the authors of this paper that the library in a college preparing teachers should include a department which might be termed a laboratory for teaching methods. This department should contain samples of all the types of teaching aids which have been enumerated, and many more. It should contain materials for every subject field in which the students of the college are preparing to teach and, if possible, for every phase of those fields. It should have, for demonstration purposes, slides of all sorts, records, and recordings. It should have full charge of all the equipment for the use of these materials. A member of the library staff should be responsible not only for scheduling the use of this equipment and keeping it in good condition but he should be able to instruct the college students in its use.
The centralization of these materials and this equipment in the college library has many advantages. It gives the librarian the opportunity to extend his services into every phase of the curriculum and keeps the library constantly within the attention of every instructor and every student. It makes every member of the library staff more acutely aware of the actual needs of teachers and prospective teachers, less inclined to the academic isolationism into which many librarians are apt to fall, more flexible in his use of the technical processes of librarianship, and more imaginative in his response to calls for assistance and in his approach to those who try to teach without the library’s resources.

The interrelationships among the departments of the college are already evident in the correlation of instruction in art, music, literature, geography, and history, on the one hand, and in mathematics, science, and geography, on the other. The materials collected at Montclair as teaching aids indicate that equally close relationships exist between subjects previously considered alien to one another. We are learning that a student may want material on rhythm without having any thought of a song, a poem, or a dance. He wants a bridge, a landscape, or a geometrical pattern. Again, the importance of harmonics to the violinist is obvious, but the student of physics, mathematics, or physiology may be interested in them, too. The concentration of these materials in the college library, therefore, is just as necessary as the centralization in the library of books which pertain to two or many fields, and the cataloging of them just as rewarding as making of subject entries for useful books.

The assembling in one place of the equipment necessary for the fullest use of many of the teaching aids is similarly important. First, it makes expensive duplication almost unnecessary. By scheduling its use through one agency, every piece can be utilized to the fullest extent, instead of being allowed to lie idle for weeks in one teacher’s closet. A few rooms may be furnished with a screen and dark shades and made acoustically acceptable for all classes, and thus there can be avoided the great expense of darkening and equipping the classroom of every teacher who intends to make occasional use of films, slides, or opaque projection.

Experience shows, of course, that duplication of some machines is necessary. The music department needs a phonograph and records in each music classroom. But the "listening room" for the use of students should be attached to and administered by the library, which will provide the records.

Centralization of Control

Second, the centralization of control places the responsibility for the condition of equipment upon the one person who administers it. If this person is also responsible for training students and faculty members to use the machines and schedules these trained operators whenever the machines are in use, the possibility of damage and costly repairs is minimized.

Third, the fact that excessive duplication of equipment is avoided means that it is possible to have a sample of every type of audio-visual equipment without unreasonably expenditure. A student graduating from a teacher-training institution should be familiar with the operation of the following: sound motion picture projector, opaque projector with 3 by 4 inch slide attachment, overhead slide projector, projector for 2 by 2 inch slides and film slides, microfilm reader, phonograph, radio, and playback for using radio transcriptions and speech recordings played at thirty-three and one-third revolutions per minute.

The development of a teaching aids laboratory involves procedures on five levels:
planning, acquisition, indexing or cataloging, physical preparation of materials, and use. Experience during the past six years has shown the methods which will be described to be, in the language of the mathematician, both necessary and sufficient. Procedures which experience proved valueless have been discarded and others which seemed indispensable have been introduced. Many standard library practices have been violated.

**Planning**

It may be assumed that the librarian who has decided to add a teaching aids department will find a way to house it. There may be, in a crowded library, sufficient empty shelves so that, by shifting books, a section of stacks can be devoted to these materials. There may be a small classroom or office next to the library or across the hall. One attic or basement room, if properly arranged, will do for the nuclear collection, and another for the equipment. As its usefulness is demonstrated, the administrative officers of the college may be persuaded of the need for an accessible room, special cases, vertical and card files, display cases, and bulletin boards. If a college is so fortunate as to have a library building, the problem is reduced to that of procuring equipment and deciding where to locate it.

No doubt the college already owns many materials which should be collected in a central place. The arguments given above soon convince the administration that the centralization of equipment is both economical and efficient. The members of the departments of instruction respond to other arguments. The budget of the science department must cover chemicals, electrical equipment, living and preserved specimens, as well as test tubes and laboratory tables. If those concerned can be assured of the availability of projectors and screens, they will be glad to dispense with expenditure of their own funds for them. Also, a department which has had the exclusive use of certain equipment may be persuaded to give it up when its members find that it will be used by trained operators so that they need no longer be responsible for its operation and repair. Finally, instructors soon learn that the librarians have access to many more sources of films, slides, records, etc., than they have, and discover with delight the pleasures of using this material when it is borrowed, rented, or, in extreme cases, purchased through the library as a clearinghouse, when a room is prepared and an operator assigned, and when they are notified of materials secured for the use of others which will have value for them as well.

Though the conviction cannot be emphasized too strongly that films and film slides are not by any means the only important media for audio-visual instruction, the establishment in the college library of a central bureau for their acquisition and distribution is without doubt the most effective method of persuading the whole college that the library is the best source of all teaching materials.

**Equipment and Furniture**

It was suggested earlier that a portion of the stacks might be cleared to house the initial collection of teaching aids. This is fairly satisfactory, in the beginning, for units which may be filed in envelopes or small boxes and for sets of pamphlets in pamphlet cases. However, as the collection grows and larger and more bulky or awkward materials are added, it is necessary to have closets or cabinets built especially to house them. These would include cabinets of odd sizes and shapes, many of which are not available from library or school supply houses and which would therefore have to be made to order.
However, it should be pointed out that glass display cases, both wall and table models, should be added to the equipment as early as possible. The display of materials is not only a constant reminder to students and faculty that the service is available, but it should be a frequent task of students to prepare exhibits under the direction of the teaching aids specialist or of other members of the instructional staff.

Staff

The third step in planning a teaching aids laboratory involves personnel. From what has already been written here, it is evident that the staff member in charge of this service must have had a liberal education in the broadest sense. Some knowledge of library techniques is useful, but it is not so important as teaching experience or as an experience in a teachers' college library long enough to make one aware of the problems which teachers face. Briefly, the administrator of this department must combine the qualities of teacher, reference librarian, cataloger, and collector, with persuasiveness, tact, accuracy, interest in detail, and imagination. A member of the reference staff with teaching experience would probably be the best choice. It is of the utmost importance that every member of the staff be convinced that the materials to be handled are at least as important as books and should be treated with the same regard.

The physical preparation of the materials and the typing and filing of catalog and other cards may be handled by members of the cataloging or acquisitions department or, better, by student assistants or apprentices who, while rendering service to the library, are at the same time preparing themselves to take charge of teaching aids collections in their own schools.

When the teaching aids department has been provided with a home, a minimum of equipment, and the services of a staff, the final step in planning for its development is reached. It is at this point that a detailed study of the curriculum is necessary. In order to be able to choose teaching materials one must be fully acquainted with every course in the college curriculum and with the courses of study for the grades and subjects which the students of the college are preparing to teach. The members of the reference staff will be most helpful at this stage. They can contribute a great deal from their experience with the students who come to them for help in preparing lesson plans, units of work, reports, etc.

Possibilities for service

However, the requests of students are necessarily much narrower than the possibilities for service. These may be explored in a number of ways. This research should begin with examination of the catalog descriptions of the courses given at the college and include a study of the outlines used by the instructors, if these are available. An alert library staff will be fairly well aware of the contents of most of the courses before this enquiry is made.

While courses of study used in various parts of the country may vary in details, the actual body of knowledge to be covered lies within certain limits and examination of one or two courses in each field will yield a fairly comprehensive picture of the information to be acquired by pupils of any grade. By adding to this information that derived from examination of two or three widely used textbooks for each grade and subject, the teaching aids librarian is able to judge with considerable accuracy whether or not any given piece of information or graphic presentation will fit into the curriculum of the college or fit the grades and subjects in which its graduates will teach.

When the subject matter to be covered is clearly in mind, it is simple to decide
which materials to acquire and to find where to get them. A number of agencies are distributing such information. The A.L.A. Booklist, the Library Journal, and the Wilson Company publish lists of "free and inexpensive materials." With the exception of the Wilson Company's Educational Film Catalog, however, these are not directed specifically toward education. The Teaching Aids Service of the library of the New Jersey State Teachers College, at Montclair, has, since 1938, published lists of teaching aids in sixteen subject fields. These represent extensive research in most of the subjects covered by the secondary curriculum and in many sections of the elementary curriculum as well. A price list of these publications will be sent to enquirers upon request. In addition, the service is glad to give information from its files on subjects not covered by the printed lists and to supplement the lists with up-to-date information received since their publication. The work done by the Educational Film Catalog, however, is not duplicated.

**Acquisition**

In beginning to collect teaching materials, it is wise to choose some items for each department of instruction. The advantages of such impartiality outweigh the disadvantages. While an embryonic collection of fifty items offers little for any one course, it does give to everyone a foretaste of riches to come and a sense of impartiality in service which the library, of course, fosters at all cost.

The publications of the Montclair Teaching Aids Service list many items which cost as little as five, ten, and twenty-five cents. It is recommended that libraries begin with these: their low cost is no index of their value, and a large collection may be acquired in a short time, with little effort and small expense. A form postal card may be made up and mimeographed in lots of two hundred or more. A printed or typed form with the name of the college as heading carries much more weight with manufacturers and publishers than a handwritten card, and many things for which a low charge is usually made may be sent free if the card brings out clearly the purposes for which the material will be used. A warning should be given here against permitting students to write for materials. They are careless and their wording is ineffective, in most cases. In any event, each card should be dated and should bear the signature of a library official.

There need be no hesitation about using, in the classroom, materials supplied by manufacturers. Very few contain advertising other than the name and address of the firm. Frequently these materials are written by educational departments and are intended to give consumers (including school children) accurate information upon the sources, manufacturing processes, and uses of their products. Naturally the manufacturer is the best source of such information and the persons who prepare the material are recognized as experts.

It will be noted that films have not been mentioned as a part of these collections. The authors believe that no attempt should be made to purchase an adequate collection of sound films for this department. Those desired for classroom use in the college may be borrowed or rented, and it need not be a function of this service to provide them for use in other schools. There are several arguments in favor of such a policy: (1) many films become obsolete in a year or two under present conditions; (2) the cost of original purchase, plus replacement footage, is further increased by the necessity for staff to examine, repair, and handle the stock; and (3) provision must be made for safe storage in a cool dry room. It has been found quite feasible to borrow and rent...
films from various parts of the country, and infinitely cheaper.

**Classification**

The scheme of classification for a collection of teaching aids should be similar to that commonly used in a vertical file or information file, i.e., an alphabetical arrangement by subjects. However, to be practical, the scheme should correspond as closely as possible to the departments of instruction. For that reason an arrangement by subject which has some of the flexibility and expansibility of a numerical system seems advisable. Much material falls into such large groups as "Science," "History," "Mathematics," with such subdivisions as "Science—Chemistry," "Science—Physics," "History—France," and "Mathematics—Algebra." Specific headings, such as "Electricity," may be used because the materials under them are applicable to many fields.

**Cataloging and Physical Preparation of Units**

Details of these routines have no place in a paper of this nature. It may be stated, however, that certain variations of standard library methods have been found necessary. Specifically, there are two types of entries which have been found indispensable. The first is in a correspondence file, in which letters and postals requesting materials are recorded, together with the replies. Each item is dated. These entries, made in longhand at the time of sending or receiving mail, are filed alphabetically under the names of the firms or institutions addressed. They make it unnecessary to keep a file of letters and carbons and render it possible to see at a glance the extent of dealing with each correspondent.

The second entry is in the information cards. These are subject entries filed in the subject catalog of teaching aids. Instead of describing units actually in the teaching aids collection, however, they give information on available films and on expensive materials (such as globes, wall-maps, screens, and other projection equipment), as well as references to individual pamphlets, illustrated books, sets of pictures, etc., which are elsewhere in the library's collection. Many of these entries result from careful analysis of picture and film catalogs and again, as in the case of the correspondence cards, obviate the necessity of keeping on file a bulky collection of catalogs which are themselves poorly classified and inadequately indexed.

**Use of Materials**

The most important function of the teaching aids laboratory is to stimulate teachers and pupils to create. For example, the teacher of fifth and sixth grade social studies in a New Jersey school borrowed materials for a Pan American Day exhibit. The pupils, stimulated by these materials, made geography and nature study slides relating to their study of Latin America. They built a scale model of the Panama Canal. Then they dressed dolls in the costumes of Latin American countries, using books showing how to make and dress dolls and studying pictures in the National Geographic Magazine for authenticity.

The aid of the sewing teacher was enlisted, and the activities of four departments (social studies, science, mathematics, and sewing) were correlated. The work could have been expanded still further by making puppets instead of dolls; and, with the help of English, music, and physical education teachers, a play might have been written and produced, with songs and dances in costume by members of the class as well as by puppets.

This is merely one example of the use to which the teaching aids laboratory can be

(Continued on page 236)
The Bodleian and Its Founder

In this brief paper Bodley’s present librarian brings to date the account of the storied Oxford institution over which he has presided for many years.

Four hundred years ago—on March 2, 1545, according to the Gregorian calendar—Thomas Bodley was born in the city of Exeter, England. Like Raleigh and Drake and other great figures of Elizabethan England he was a Devon man. His father was a zealous Protestant who found refuge from religious persecution at Geneva, and here he received his early education. But the accession of Queen Elizabeth allowed his return to England and his entry as a student into the University of Oxford, the place with which his name will be forever associated.

After taking his degree, he was elected a fellow of Merton College, gave lectures both in Greek and in natural philosophy (the sixteenth-century equivalent of science), and acted as deputy for the public orator of the university. When he was past thirty years he decided to enter the diplomatic service and, with this in view, traveled for some years in Italy, France, and Germany in order to acquire a knowledge of modern languages.

At the age of forty he began to be employed on missions to foreign courts, and in 1588—the year of the Spanish Armada—he was sent to The Hague as English Minister Plenipotentiary to the Netherlands, which had recently revolted from Spain. During the five years of his continuous residence at The Hague—a period of constant warfare between the Spaniards and the Dutch—he was a principal member of the Council of State of the Dutch Republic, taking part in all its deliberations. On two subsequent occasions he was sent back to The Hague on special missions.

His political capacity was such that he was twice pressed to accept the office of Secretary of State in the English government. Nevertheless he had no liking for party politics. His tastes were those of a scholar, and so, at the age of fifty-three, as he tells us in his autobiography, “I resolved to possess my soul in peace all the residue of my days, to take my farewell of state employments, and to retire from the court.” His decision to direct his talents to another sphere was destined to win for his name an undying renown.

From the beginning of the fourteenth century the University of Oxford had housed its library in a room adjoining the university church. Large gifts from an English prince, Humfrey, Duke of Gloucester, brought about the erection of a new library building in the second half of the fifteenth century. It formed an upper story to the divinity school. It remains today the main Bodleian reading room and is still known as Duke Humfrey’s Library.

But its contents had been dispersed at the English Reformation, and all that was left was a great desolate room, stripped of both books and bookcases. Surveying it, Bodley came to the conclusion that “I could not busy myself to better purpose than by reducing that place, which then lay ruined and waste, to the public use of the students.”
Consequently, in 1598 he made an offer to the university that he would restore the room at his own cost to its former use, refurnish it, procure books for it, and provide an endowment. He had means of his own to carry out the work and what he called a "great store of honorable friends" to assist him in the undertaking.

His offer was accepted with the gratitude which its munificence deserved. For four years the work proceeded. The still-existing bookcases were installed, the beautiful painted roof which still adorns the room was erected, and some two thousand printed books and manuscripts were collected to form the nucleus of the library. It was formally opened on Nov. 8, 1602.

Library's Early Years

Sir Thomas Bodley survived the opening of his library by ten years. His correspondence with his first librarian is still extant and reveals the interest and zeal with which he attended to every detail of library management. The greatest service which he rendered to the library was the making of an agreement with the Stationers' Company (the trade union of English publishers) whereby the company undertook to present a copy of every book which it printed. This privilege has been confirmed by successive copyright acts and is now shared by the British Museum, the National Library of Scotland, and the libraries of Cambridge and Trinity College, Dublin.

Bodley also extended the library building by the addition of an eastern wing and left money for the erection of a top story to the university schools which were built, shortly after his death, round a quadrangle adjoining the original library. Dying on Jan. 28, 1613, he was buried in the chapel of his college of Merton, where a monument by a well-known English sculptor, Nicholas Stone, records his memory.

The Bodleian Library, as it is called in memory of its founder, is the largest of British university libraries. All members of the University of Oxford have the privilege of reading in it. Down to the middle of the nineteenth century its readers were in practice limited to university graduates and other learned men. Undergraduate students did their reading in the libraries attached to their respective colleges.

But in 1861 a neighboring library building, the Radcliffe Camera, was taken over and converted into a reading room for undergraduates. The camera is a circular building in Palladian style, completed in 1747 by the architect James Gibbs. Its lofty dome forms one of the most conspicuous features of the center of Oxford. The accommodation which it gives has been more than doubled in recent years, partly as the result of fitting up its lower story as an additional reading room.

Science Library

Further library provision was made in 1927, when a library of scientific books, named the Radcliffe Science Library, was handed over to the university. This building, to which a large new wing was added seven years later, lies within the area occupied by the university's science departments, and its use is supplemented by the specialist libraries belonging to those departments.

The Bodleian is more, however, than a university library. Ever since its foundation by Sir Thomas Bodley it has been a public library, and in consequence it ranks as one of the oldest public libraries existing in Europe. Scholars from all parts of the world are admitted to read within its walls, on production of evidence that they are engaged in the pursuit of learning.

Until the British Museum was established in the middle of the eighteenth century, the Bodleian filled the role of a national library, for no other library in
Britain was so rich in collections of manuscripts and of early printed books. The bulk of its collections are naturally of English origin. Nowhere else will one find so many manuscripts intact in their medieval English bindings. The most important manuscript material for the history of England in the seventeenth century is here. The Malone collection is the finest of its kind for Shakespeare and early English drama.

But equally important collections have come to Bodley from abroad. Among them are the Greek manuscripts of the Genoese collector Barocci; a large library of manuscripts, mainly of Italian origin, formed by the Venetian Jesuit Canonici; the libraries of classical literature formed by the Dutch scholars Meerman and Dorville; and besides these one may mention a collection of Icelandic literature and a series of Polish books—some of which are of extreme rarity—purchased in 1850.

**Oriental Collections**

The Bodleian is equally famous for its Oriental collections. It is particularly rich in Arabic manuscripts; possesses a remarkably fine series of Persian illuminated manuscripts; owns the unrivalled library of Hebraica formed by Rabbi Oppenheimer, of Prague; has a very large number of Sanskrit manuscripts; and has formed a good collection of Chinese printed books.

The Bodleian is the second largest library in Britain and the British dominions. Only the British Museum surpasses it in its contents. The number of volumes on its shelves exceeds a million and a half. It is not surprising that the finding of space for its accessions has in the past been a constant, difficult problem.

In 1933 the University of Oxford started upon a scheme of library extension then estimated to cost nearly a million pounds sterling, of which sum the Rockefeller Foundation most generously offered to contribute three-fifths. The remainder of the sum needed was found by the university from its own resources and from the subscriptions of its members and other benefactors.

**The New Library**

The main feature in the program of extension was the erection of a large annex, named the New Library, the core of which is a vast bookstack capable of containing four million books. This new building is the work of the foremost of living English architects, Sir Giles Gilbert Scott, and is in neoclassical style. It was commenced in 1937 and completed in 1940. All library books, other than those kept on the open shelves of the reading rooms, have been transferred to it.

After the present war is ended qualified readers will have limited access to its shelves—a radical departure from the current practice of English libraries, which does not allow readers access to the stack but requires them to order books for use in reading rooms. The stack is heated by the method of thermal storage—that is to say, by water circulated from cylinders heated by electric power—and is air conditioned. The building, though stone-faced, is otherwise entirely constructed of concrete and steel, all shelving and fittings being of steel and consequently fire-resistant.

The greater part of the stack is below ground level, and the whole is lit by electric light, though the top stories which rise above the surrounding building, have natural lighting. Small carrels, or studies for readers, have been provided on these upper floors. The outer rooms of the building, which surround the stack, have been planned as exhibition rooms; working rooms and rest rooms, with a canteen for the staff; a bindery; photographic rooms, including a room for reading microphotographic films;
seminars and rooms for cooperative research; and a large reading room for economics and social science.

But no library use has yet been made of them, for, as soon as they were completed, they were taken over for war purposes. Among the uses to which they have been put one may mention blood transfusion.

No further building has been possible since the autumn of 1940. The war has halted the library extension scheme, which would otherwise have been completed in 1942. When building again becomes feasible, the old university schools surrounding the Bodleian quadrangle, which have now been cleared of books formerly stored in them, will be converted into a range of reading rooms for the humanities and legal studies, containing on open shelves upwards of one hundred thousand select works of reference.

But, although war has stopped further library development, service to readers has hardly been reduced; in fact, in the science library, where much research is carried out for the government, it has been increased. This is despite the fact that, out of the hundred members of the library staff, almost all those of military age have left to join the fighting forces or to take up other forms of national service, their places being taken for the most part by women and by boys and girls below the age of eighteen.

Sir Thomas Bodley’s original endowment of £130 ($520) a year has been increased to a total income of about £35,000 ($140,000). Of this sum £11,000 ($44,000) is derived from a government grant made to the university; about £8,500 ($34,000) is contributed by the university out of its own resources or by colleges; and the library’s own endowment is a little over £7,500 ($30,000). His library staff of two has increased to a hundred, and his library of two thousand books will soon number two million.

The following announcement comes from the International Relations Office of the American Library Association:

The Washington office of the American Library Association’s International Relations Board has received from the Division of Cultural Cooperation of the Department of State a list of sixty-eight Swiss institutions receiving periodicals on exchange from the United States, some six hundred in number.

The first title listed is Abridged Scientific Publications, Research Laboratory, Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N.Y. The last is Zoological Scientific Contributions of the New York Zoological Society.

The record comes from M. Marcel Godet, director of the Swiss National Library, through Leland Harrison, American minister to Switzerland.

Switzerland hopes that exchange relations may be resumed as soon as postal relations become normal once more.

This note is sent to let the issuing offices in this country know of this hope and to assure retention of back numbers and provision of future current issues to complete Swiss files when conditions permit.

The university library at Basle and the central library at Zurich were unable to list their exchanges. So too the library of the League of Nations at Geneva made no report.

The American Library Association has received from the Faculty of Medicine at Montevideo a collection of recent Uruguayan medical books and periodicals, comprising some 140 pieces, in exchange for books sent to the faculty as part of the Books for Latin America program. The director of the library of the faculty, Dr. Alejandro F. Sarachaga, is anxious to establish exchanges of the Anales de la Facultad de Medicina with medical publications of the United States and will welcome correspondence to that effect.
Suggestions for Statistical Records, 1

This is the first part of an article which brings a fresh view of the subject of library statistics and which will be continued in a subsequent number of College and Research Libraries.

That most librarians dislike statistical records is patent. But without figures capable of intelligent interpretation, we are seriously handicapped indeed. William Thomas Kelvin expressed the need adequately and succinctly, "... when you can measure whatever you are talking about, and express it in numbers, you know something about it. But when you cannot measure it in numbers your knowledge is of an inadequate and unsatisfactory kind." 2

Especially in research libraries, librarians are almost universally disinclined toward maintaining such records and presenting them in a utilitarian style. 3 Heinrich Simon observed almost half a century ago that a librarian shudders before a statistical report form as does a hard-pressed doctoral candidate before his committee. Also, Georg Leyh, of Tübingen, the outstanding authority on statistical records of libraries, has justly looked with suspicion on librarians who consider themselves above the allegedly irksome tasks of compiling and reporting statistics. 4

The history of the development of statistical records in libraries might well be the subject of a monograph. There is a fairly good introduction to it by Georg Leyh in the second volume of the Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft. However, it must be sufficient here to point out that the matter of uniform statistical reporting has been of great concern to American librarians ever since the 1870's but that no important advances were made before the 1930's. Especially significant is the recent work of a joint committee composed of representatives from the A.L.A., state library agencies, and the U. S. Office of Education, which drew up uniform statistical report forms for both public and academic libraries, the latter entitled Library Statistical Report for Institutions of Higher Education. 5 This form is used for collecting statistical data both by the A.L.A. and by the Library Service Division of the Office of Education. It is a basic document and represents much intelligent thinking on library problems. However, it has certain limitations, possibly

1 I am indebted to Charles H. Brown, Ralph M. Dunbar, Clyde Cantrell, and Eugene H. Wilson for many helpful suggestions of practical value in preparing this article. However, any errors of fact or fail­lacies of speculation are attributable solely to the author.


4 Leyh, Georg. "Die Grundlagen einer internation­alen Bibliothekssstatistik," p. 103. On the other hand, Randolph G. Adams is thoroughly justified in his twen­tieth annual report of the William L. Clements Library (Michigan University. The President's Re­port, 1942-43, p. 257) in stating that "we have always contended that quantitative measurements tell little about this library, so that we have presented this sum­mary before giving the meaningless figure that we added 1453 volumes to the division of printed books during the course of the year." Even Leyh accepts this viewpoint in his article "Statistik," p. 597, in Milkau, Fritz, and Leyh, Georg, eds. Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft. Leipzig, Harrassowitz, 1931-40, II, 566-80.

5 U.S. Office of Education. Form 8-072.
because it is still essentially experimental, although there had been some experience with an older A.L.A. form.

**Report Form**

While it is not proposed to limit this paper exclusively to a criticism of the *Library Statistical Report for Higher Institutions*, that document will be subject to careful scrutiny inasmuch as it should be the starting point for any attempt to improve uniform university library statistical records. Many suggestions contained in this paper will be practical to only a few librarians for use in their individual statistical reports. If every possible statistical category were included in one questionnaire, it would break down of its own weight and many libraries might refuse to answer it because it would be too cumbersome. Some items are especially applicable to university libraries, others to college libraries, and still others to noninstitutional research libraries, which is all the more reason for having separate statistical report forms for each of these three types of libraries. If we feel it desirable to collect highly specialized information which only a few libraries will be able to supply, we might provide supplemental slip sheets with the report forms, instructing libraries to ignore items not pertinent.

An especially suggestive practice is one followed by the New York State Library at Albany. This library publishes in its *Annual Report* not only a table of statistical records arranged according to the “Revised Form for College and Reference Library Statistics” issued by the A.L.A. Committee on Library Administration but also other statistical records of specific interest to itself, e.g., the number of volumes acquired by salvage from its fire.

*Subtitle, A Treasure House of New York History, 1642, 134-35, "Appendix." The reports of this library in recent years are models of both statistical and narrative excellence.*

**Limitations of Compilations**

In any consideration of statistical records, and especially of compilations based on returns from a number of libraries, we must never forget that lack of space and funds often limits any program to publish them. By reason of this, the A.L.A. and the Office of Education have in their files a great deal of information supplemental to that which has been published.

A fundamental point in connection with statistical records is the comparison of libraries on matters suggested by the various statistical categories. It is natural to compare libraries, even libraries which are not fairly comparable. The popular mind, whether American, French, English, or German, enjoys nothing more than to indulge in the conceit that his particular national library contains more books than any other library in the world. And some librarians will compare everything, even such figures as the soap and towel expenditures in the New York Public Library and the price paid by the Library of Congress for the Vollbehr collection. Since they feel compelled to do this, we should attempt to make statistical records of libraries as comparable as possible. After all, comparisons of an appropriate nature can be useful, particularly when we are interested in trends and problems of development over a period of years. That it is not impossible to collect uniform data on even the most irrational and variable of human activities is illustrated by the magnificent work of the Federal Bureau of Investigation in organizing a system for the collection of uniform crime statistics and publishing them regularly in an intelligible manner.

**A Complete List Needed**

The answer to the criticism that the list of institutions on which data have been annually published (by *College and Research Libraries*) “needs revision in order
The Office of Education's College and University Library Statistics, 1939-40, and previous publications in the series of Statistics of Public, Society and School Libraries (irregular from 1870 on), are far more valuable than the compilations for college and university libraries for the same year published in the A.L.A. Bulletin, simply because the former, although including considerably fewer statistical categories, attempts to publish figures on all such libraries. An even more urgent reason for making complete such tables as have been published in College and Research Libraries is that these tables have been the only regularly published figures on many libraries.

A.L.A. Committee on Statistics. "Annual Report." A.L.A. Bulletin, vol. 15, 1940, p. 4. See also Burgess, Robert Stone. "The Sources of Library Statistics." Unpublished M.A. thesis, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1942, p. 59. Burgess aptly points out that the present policy of inclusion of college and university libraries in the published tables of statistical records gathered by the A.L.A. is based more on the willingness of librarians to take time off to return the statistical questionnaire than on an evaluation of these institutions as being in any way typical or representative. Furthermore, in any discussion of statistical work we should be careful to distinguish between functions of collecting and preserving and of publishing.

Mr. Dunbar writes: "My experience over the last fifteen years has been that among the reasons for this situation (i.e., incompleteness) has been: (1) some private institutions feel that their data are their own business; (2) some institutions keep their statistical records in a manner which they feel fits their own particular needs and consequently do not have their figures in a form to comply with the general blank; (3) some do not wish to invite comparisons with other institutions, as they are either too far in advance or are too poor; (4) many of the religious institutions have the complication of 'contributed services' and perhaps too few—changes in scope and content. Paul Schwenke's Adressbuch. This information might be supplemented irregularly, possibly every five years, but the statistical records of current interest must be published annually. The period covered should be identical for all libraries, insofar as possible. However, it might be necessary to recognize periods of both the calendar year and the fiscal year, inasmuch as the

An Annual Handbook

Obviously College and Research Libraries cannot publish complete statistical records of college and university libraries under present arrangements. Perhaps the only way to do this is to publish an annual handbook of statistical records of libraries, including all libraries in the United States, separated into their appropriate classes. This handbook might possibly be combined with the American Library Directory in a publication similar to the Jahrbuch der Deutschen Bibliotheken or Paul Schwenke's Adressbuch. Probably separate sections should be maintained for (1) university libraries, (2) college libraries, (3) large public reference libraries, and (4) smaller public libraries and large circulating systems of a strictly popular character (e.g., most of the branches of the Circulation Department of the New York Public Library). Due to their very nature, special libraries might perhaps be considered in a separate directory similar to those already issued.

In addition to statistical information, the first number of this handbook might include historical and descriptive information similar to that contained in Schwenke's still invaluable but unrevised Adressbuch. This information might be supplemented irregularly, possibly every five years, but the statistical records of current interest must be published annually. The period covered should be identical for all libraries, insofar as possible.

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10 The Jahrbuch has been published fairly regularly since its first volume in 1902 and has undergone few—perhaps too few—changes in scope and content. Paul Schwenke's Adressbuch der Deutschen Bibliotheken. Leipzig, Harrassowitz, 1893; Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen, Heft 10, includes only figures on holdings, book fund, number of employees, and periods when the libraries listed were open and closed. There is also historical, descriptive, and bibliographical information on each library included in the Adressbuch.

11 Burgess, op. cit., p. 70-77, examines and describes present sources for statistical records of special libraries.
governing bodies of some institutions require reports for one period and others for another. But under no circumstances should reports be included for three-quarters of a year.

**Inadequate Publication**

Related to the fault of inadequate coverage of institutions is that of inadequate publication of information which is available, a condition which may generally be traced to inadequate funds and shortage of personnel. It is regrettable that the latest compilations in *College and Research Libraries* failed to include the figures on numbers and salaries of professional assistants. The A.L.A. probably has spent Headquarters staff man hours on less important matters, and the A.L.A. Bulletin and *College and Research Libraries* have published many items of less value than this one page. Such important items as the number of days open per year; the schedule of hours in which the library is open (a) for circulation and (b) for reading and study; and the number of newspapers and periodicals currently received, all of which are provided for in the *Library Statistical Report Form for Institutions of Higher Education*, find no place in the printed tables. There would be no need for omitting them from printed tables if we had an adequately financed yearbook of statistical records.

Special emphasis should be placed by the editors of this proposed yearbook on discouraging "confidential items," particularly those on personnel—salaries, classification, hours, vacations, and holidays. Eugene H. Wilson directs attention to the fact that in the last published reports the salary of the librarian of the University of Illinois is not reported and the salary of the associate librarian is marked "confidential." However, the biennial report of the trustees publishes the complete salary statistics and accounts for every dollar spent by the university.

From the very beginning of the serious study of statistical records of libraries, the matter of quantitative measurement of book stock has been a point of general disagreement. The University of Göttlingen Library was distinctly embarrassed on one occasion because of definitions inadequate for an accurate count of its holdings. In 1854 its size was estimated at 500,000 volumes, but in 1890, when an exact count was made on the basis of carefully defined terms, it could show only 442,371 volumes, a shrinkage on paper of 12 per cent in a period of constant expansion.

**Definition of Terms**

The problem is basically that of definition of terms. No two libraries seem to agree as to precisely what a volume is and what a pamphlet is, whether books should be counted by titles or by bound units, whether duplicates are included or not, and

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12 It is important to include these categories when we realize that statistical records of personnel are the only categories in which American statistical records are superior to the Swiss (annually published in *Der Schweizer Sammler*) and the German. On the other hand, even these figures can be improved. Burgess, op. cit., points out on p. 55-56 that the practice of listing salary ranges by departments rather than giving individual salaries of professional staff members virtually nullifies the value of this information except in the few rare cases where there are but two or three professional employees in each department.

13 The *Library Statistical Report for Institutions of Higher Education* states that "a volume is any printed, typewritten, mimeographed, or processed work, bound or unbound, which has been cataloged and fully prepared for use." Some libraries distinguish pamphlets from books according to the number of pages they contain (less than one hundred pages in Germany, Switzerland, and the Newberry Library, less than forty-eight in the Bibliothèque Nationale constitute a pamphlet). Others add a certain number of pamphlets together to make one volume (fifteen equal one volume for Schwenke, ten equal one volume for modern German librarians and James Duff Brown in *Manual of Library Economy* (London, Grafton and Company, 1937; fifth ed. by W. C. Berwick Sayers), p. 69). Thomas Franklin Currier in "Harvard Rules for Counting Volumes and Pamphlets" (*Library Journal* 42:222, 1918) quotes from a pertinent letter from Herbert Putnam: "The disadvantages of the arbitrary distinction between volumes and pamphlets, and in enumerating the pages or names of pamphlets contained in a volume, is that the number of items in the report is almost always incomplete."
so on. The innumerable points on which there is disagreement reveal clearly the fact that no two libraries may be fairly compared according to present standards of quantitative measurement. The only immediate aid in this matter would be our handbook of statistical records in which each library's rules for counting its holdings could be stated concisely, perhaps once every five years.

The problem of counting total holdings cannot be solved here. A special committee in the Library of Congress has been trying to work out a basic procedure for an accurate recount of that library for two years without coming to any definite conclusions. While we may never be able to compare libraries accurately on the basis of volume count, it is conceivable that other standards of quantitative measurement of actual holdings may be used as bases. One standard of this sort is measurement of book stock in linear meters or feet.

The notion of measurement in linear meters was first proposed by Christian Berghoeffer, then librarian of the former Rothschild Library in Frankfurt am Main, in his article on "Messen und Zählen bei Feststellung des Bücherbestandes" in 1893. The editors of the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* expressed themselves in a footnote to Berghoeffer's article as being very skeptical of the validity of this procedure. Nevertheless, the idea has gradually won headway in England, Norway, Italy, and Germany.

Berghoeffer's original plea for measurement in linear meters was partially based on the rapidity of his method. The International Federation of Library Associations Sub-Commission on Statistics of Libraries reported that six hundred thousand volumes were measured in four days by one professional and one clerical employee at the University of Tübingen but warned that it will be considerably more difficult for a classified library in which the shelves are not filled solidly. However, the really significant aspect of the scheme of measuring a collection of books in linear feet is in providing a check against such discrepancies in counting either volumes or titles as may be caused by peculiar administrative procedures of individual libraries. As to methods of measurement in linear feet (or meters), Georg Leyh, a confirmed advocate of measurement, gives very simple instructions: "Length is measured without regard to size or form. Books charged out at taking of the inventory are included in proportion of 33 vols. = 1 meter's length." New accessions could be readily measured simply by filling solidly a new bookshelf of standard size before sending the books to the stack and counting the number of times that the shelf was filled.

As already indicated, measurement has its critics. J. Muszkowski, director of the Biblioteka i Muzeum Ordynacji Krasinski in Warsaw, argued that measurement was unfair because English publishers bind
more books and use thicker paper than continental publishers.\textsuperscript{18} Paul Gering offers more objections, which are not listed here because he seems to understand measuring as an auxiliary, not as an absolute device for ascertaining the size of a library.\textsuperscript{19} On the other hand, the idea was carried to an absurd extreme when Leyh proposed to measure not only current acquisitions and total holdings but also manuscripts and incunabula.\textsuperscript{20} Measurement is primarily for those parts of the collection which are not otherwise adequately described.

Incunabula, manuscripts, maps, prints, dissertations, photographs, and music should all be counted separately. The \textit{Annual Report of the Library Syndicate}, Cambridge University Library, notes whether maps are received by copyright (ordinance, other official, miscellaneous, and atlases), purchase, or presents and exchanges (English and foreign). It might also be advisable to have a separate rubric for \textit{Short Title Catalogue} books, particularly in reporting annual accessions, as a guide for future revisions of the list of American locations for books printed in England prior to 1640. If at all possible, it would be desirable at least to give an approximate indication of the proportion of the total number of volumes which are government documents. This practice, which is followed by the American Council on Education's \textit{American Universities and Colleges}, is especially useful as a qualitative standard for evaluating small college libraries. As for keeping actual statistics of document acquisition, the practice of recording all separate pieces of U.S., foreign, state, and municipal documents may be recommended (\textit{e.g.}, as at Stanford University Libraries). A fair estimate of the number of duplicates available for exchange might be of some value, especially if classified as to subject field.

The \textit{Library Statistical Report for Institutions of Higher Education} misses the mark completely when "photographs, pictures, prints" are lumped together as though they represented a single type of material. This grouping might conceivably be legitimate in a small public library, where the form is less important than the fact that the items are similar kinds of visual aids, but for a reference library to place its fifteenth-century woodcuts in the same category with the postal cards donated by a library-minded citizen is hardly appropriate.

But perhaps the most important single improvement of methods of counting total holdings would be to draw up uniform methods for counting current acquisitions. The day will come when present holdings are but a fraction of total holdings; and if accessions are counted in a uniform manner over a period of years, there may be some future possibility of both quantitative and qualitative comparison of libraries. At present the \textit{Library Statistical Report for Institutions of Higher Learning} provides for current acquisitions solely from a fiscal viewpoint, analyzing them only by their source (purchase, gift, exchange, binding of material not included in the first three items, and restoration of volumes previously lost or withdrawn).\textsuperscript{21}

\textsuperscript{18} International Committee of Libraries, Sub-Commission on Library Statistics. \textit{[Report]. Publications of the International Federation of Library Associations}, \textit{V}, 1934—Actes du Comité International des Bibliothèques, 6ème Session, Chicago, October 14, Avignon, November 13-14, 1933. p. 56-57. We need more discussion of how size, format, kinds of binding, paper thickness, etc., are going to be accounted for in a system of linear measurement.

\textsuperscript{19} "Die Bibliothekstatistik in Deutschland." \textit{Allgemeines Statistisches Archiv} 17:99-100, 1927. This article deserves careful study as the basic work on German library statistics. It will be found that many of the German practices will shed light on problems of American libraries.

\textsuperscript{20} "Statistique International des Bibliothèques," loc. cit., p. 144, 146.

\textsuperscript{21} It would be most desirable for university libraries to analyze their exchanges in some detail in their annual reports, noting especially the numbers of domestic and foreign institutions with which an exchange relationship is maintained for each publication or for all publications of each scientific society or institute which deposits its publications with the library for exchange purposes. The \textit{Annual Report of the Library Syndicate}, Cambridge University Library, ana-
A needed improvement in statistical methods of American libraries is to classify current accessions. Everyone concerned with the library would find that a record of this sort would be invaluable. For the scholar it would be a partial guide to the library's holdings in his field. For the lay governing body it would be the most effective way of understanding concretely the library's growth and contents. Above all, for the librarian it would be a guide to book selection, apportionment of funds, evaluation of trends, accurate comparison with other libraries, general policy, and innumerable other possibilities in setting up standards of service. The fact that the Iowa State College Library has a budget of about $80,000 for books, periodicals, and binding, as compared with book budgets of $150,000 for some other institutions of university rank, does not mean much unless it can be shown that Iowa State's acquisitions are largely confined to the pure and applied sciences. When holdings of the one hundred most frequently cited chemical periodicals were checked in the *Union List of Serials*, Iowa State ranked among the first four in completeness of its sets, far ahead of many institutions with book budgets two and three times as large. Classification of acquisitions by subject fields would show roughly the same thing over a period of years, although not quite so accurately as this detailed and painstaking study.

Few American libraries entertain such advanced conceptions of statistical records as the Library of Congress, which tells us every year the exact number of volumes classified and shelflisted by the Subject Cataloguing Division in each major classification. The slight additional work of keeping classified records of *titles* passing through the hands of classifiers and subject catalogers is surely commensurate with the value of the information made available thereby.

An alternative method is to count directly from the shelflist. Most libraries usually let new shelf-list cards, or those to which additions are made, accumulate for a period of one to four or more weeks. When these cards are in their preliminary classified arrangement preparatory to filing, it would be very simple to divide them into classes and count the number of new accession numbers in each class. Libraries which use the original order card as the shelf-list card could also ascertain from this source just how much money is spent for acquisitions in each class. And it cannot be emphasized too strongly that classified acquisitions by volumes or titles mean little unless there is also information as to how much money is spent on each class. Apportionment of book funds by departments of instruction should always be noted separately in the library's annual report, although there may be no way to put this information into statistical tables covering a number of libraries.

For almost half a century the *Jahrbuch der Deutschen Bibliotheken* has been classifying accession statistics. Acquisitions of books are divided into eleven broad, but well defined, categories, *viz.*., general works; theology; law and political science; economics; medicine; natural sciences and mathematics; technology; horticulture, agriculture, and forestry; history; philosophy and pedagogy; and art. While undoubtedly there are occasional varying classifications of books by different libraries, the subject classes are broad enough to permit over-all uniformity. We might use the ten main classes of the Dewey decimal system in this country. All librarians are familiar with them, and it is a very simple matter to assign a book to one of the main Dewey classes at the time it is being classified under the Library of Congress system.
or any of those used by such institutions as Princeton or Harvard.

Another important breakdown of new acquisitions almost completely ignored in America is the division of current acquisitions into new and secondhand books. The statistical records of Swiss libraries, published annually since 1929 by the Vereinigung Schweizerischer Bibliothekare in Der Schweizer Sammler, include tables of percentages for the relative amounts spent on new books, secondhand books, continuations, and periodicals. The Jahrbuch der Deutschen Bibliotheken lists exact expenditures for new books, continuations, periodicals, secondhand books (in two separate sections, (a) from the fifteenth through the seventeenth centuries and (b) from the eighteenth through the twentieth centuries), and manuscripts. The Annual Report of the Library Syndicate, Cambridge University Library, classifies purchases as to whether they are new (subdividing by country of origin), secondhand (no subdivision), or come by "special grant."

Information showing the relative amounts spent on secondhand books and current trade books would seem to be invaluable for the librarian. It is difficult to understand how any workable purchasing policy can be set up without it. Without such figures a librarian is in no position to organize most advantageously large cooperative buying projects. He cannot tell trustees and legislators precisely who is getting his trade or logically present his requests for appropriations. With them, relations between librarians and dealers might be placed on a sounder footing and divested of some of the mutual suspicion which is almost traditional. Particularly in American libraries, which started growing only in the latter half of the nineteenth century and have never had adequate opportunity to acquire systematically books published prior to 1800, a record of the relative amounts spent for nova and antiquaria would be a significant guide to the extent of the librarian's efforts to satisfy the needs of scholars.

But however useful this information on the relative amounts spent for new and secondhand books may be, it must be recognized that it would necessitate much additional bookkeeping. Before including this item in any statistical report form such as the Library Statistical Report for Institutions of Higher Education, it would be advisable to conduct a special study in order to ascertain how frequently the data need be collected, from what sources they are available, what additional work their compilation might entail, and how far their compilation might be limited to sampling.

Another item which might be considered in recording the disposition of the book fund is the relative amounts spent for domestic and foreign books. The Cambridge University Library classifies its purchases of new books according to whether they are published in the United Kingdom, British possessions, the United States, Germany, France, or elsewhere. A breakdown of this sort was proposed by Leyh in his outline for a system of international library statistics. These figures might have some significance in revealing the policies of certain municipal public library systems, which have to serve large numbers of patrons whose native language is not English, or for studies similar to Waples and Lasswell's National Libraries and Foreign Scholarship.

Binding is rarely given adequate statistical treatment. The Library Statistical Report for Institutions of Higher Education covers binding only by including a blank for expenditures for "binding and rebinding." Virtually all compilations have a column for bindery expenditures, but none of them


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(and few annual reports of individual libraries) gives the actual number of books bound, rebound, repaired, and placed in a quasi-bound state. A rubric to provide for these categories would be significant in that it would show clearly, for example, how a scientific library, in which periodical literature is the most important type of publication received, has far heavier binding loads than a library whose acquisitions are largely books and other types of monographic publications. For all a legislator or trustee knows, a library which reports five thousand dollars in bindery expenditures may be acquiring fifty especially elegant collectors' bindings rather than spreading its resources judiciously for more practical work. Detailed bindery figures are all the more important because there is no direct and constant relation between binding expenditures and expenditures for book purchases.

A significant figure for correlation with bindery statistics might be enumeration of the bound and unbound books received by the library, a practice followed by the Cambridge University Library in recording volumes received by it under the Copyright Act.

A few libraries distinguish themselves for the exactness of their bindery statistics. Especially noteworthy are the analyses of bindery figures given in the Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress, the University of Lund's Årsberättelse, the Jahresbericht of the Deutsche Bücherei (a model of library statistical records in other respects as well), and the Bodleian's Report of the Curators (otherwise very weak in statistical records). Each of these libraries goes into careful detail as to the number of volumes or pamphlets put into the various types of bindings used by it and the number and nature of repairs. On the other hand, if we compare the headings used for bindery records for each of these libraries, it is clearly impossible to draw up any uniform system of reporting bindery statistics with absolute exactness. However, it would probably be satisfactory to attempt to record: (a) volumes bound or rebound, (b) volumes repaired, and (c) smaller publications placed in various types of pamphlet bindings.

In these days of rapidly increasing costs of materials and labor, it would be of considerable value to maintain vertical records of bindery costs in individual libraries. In the first two decades of this century Princeton kept such figures, and a study of the resultant tables will not be without significance for librarians of today. For each year we have figures on the number of volumes and pamphlets bound, pamphlets placed in folders, and number of gilding jobs, together with the total cost and cost per volume.

(to be concluded)


The John G. White Collection at the Cleveland Public Library

A description of a notable accumulation of folklore and Orientalia prepared by its librarian.

Public libraries have not always conceived of their task as including the building up of great scholarly collections or, if they have thought of it, have not often had the wherewithal to do so. In this country the municipal libraries of Boston and New York, with their noted specialties, have not had many imitators in the public library field. The chief, perhaps, are Detroit's Burton collection of American history and Cleveland's White collection—both originating in private generosity.

In 1899 Cleveland had an experience unfortunately not without precedent in American library history. Its revenue was sharply reduced to help out other city departments whose payrolls were more intimately connected with votes. John G. White, a lawyer who had been president of the library board and was to be again, resented this action of the city government. He determined to compensate the library in some degree by adding to the book collection items which probably otherwise could not be acquired. Burton's translation of the Arabian Nights was the first item given, followed by Payne's. Stemming from these two versions came other collections of folk tales and other translations of Oriental literature. Before long, the late William H. Brett, then chief librarian, realizing that a major gift was under way, segregated the books as a special White collection. Eventually this received a head, its own room, and its own catalog.

Mr. White's gifts continued throughout his life, which had more than thirty years to run. His procedure was to receive the books at his office, examine them hastily or in detail, and when they became too numerous, send them to the library for collation and storage.

Mr. White was a bachelor lawyer whose father had been clerk of the Federal District Court. He became particularly noted for his knowledge of real estate and municipal law and in his latter years was recognized as dean of the Cleveland bar. As a testament to his legal learning, the saying was that one need merely enter a courtroom and see the huge piles of books representing authorities cited, to know that John G. White was trying a case.

Mr. White's hobbies were fishing, mushroom hunting, blood and thunder yarns, the collecting of chess books, and the library. He was president of the board when William H. Brett was appointed librarian in 1884 and when Linda A. Eastman succeeded him in 1918. His was no mere honorary position. He was constantly available for advice, always shrewd, always foresighted. Any history of the Cleveland Public Library must rank him with Mr. Brett and Miss Eastman as a most potent factor in the making of the library. Just before his death
in 1928, at the age of 83, he witnessed the first operation of a sound and liberal staff pension system, drafted chiefly by him. At his death he bequeathed to the library his unrivaled collection of chess and checker books, together with his estate, which was to continue his gifts in all fields. Book purchases and binding come out of the White funds, but not staff salaries or other expenses, which are borne by the library.

The White collection, now housed in a handsome room overlooking Lake Erie, on the third floor of the main library building, is open weekdays from 9 A.M. until 6 P.M. Books are lent with considerable freedom to local readers and also to other libraries, with which a thriving trade is carried on. The war has naturally seen increased call for Oriental books, especially language treatises.

The library gets considerable publicity out of the collection. Americans, it seems, are always interested to learn that something ultramodern, like food rationing, the bazooka, or Frank Sinatra, is paralleled in China or ancient Egypt. Such discoveries always find space, with incidental mention of the library, even in today’s crowded pages.

The present policy of bookbuying considers the collection as one primarily for the scholar or reference worker. Its many rarities have been bought to anticipate or meet the inquirer’s even occasional need. In certain fields, however, the book collector’s pattern has been followed and an effort made to buy every issue of every edition. Examples are chess and checkers, Robin Hood and the Rubaiyat.

The folklore books are of first importance. Inferior to Harvard’s enormous material on English ballads gathered by Child and Kittredge and making no attempt at more than a representative gathering on alchemy, astrology, witchcraft, and magic, the collection has perhaps the country’s largest group of books on proverbs and a wide range of material on all fields of folklore, particularly German. Much attention has been paid in late years to acquiring romances, both the medieval and the later chivalric, and the accumulation is important. Some handsomely bound sixteenth-century Italian translations of Perceforest and of Palmerin of England bear the arms of J. A. de Thou.

Folklore and romances have led to the acquisition of medieval literature. Middle English, and even more, Old French and Provençal, Middle High German, Middle Dutch, and Old Norse are strongly represented. Some effort has been made to collect early Russian literature.

Catalogs of medieval and Oriental manuscripts were originally procured by Mr. White as guides to unpublished chess material which might be copied or reproduced. They have since been purchased systematically and are already numerous enough to have been helpful to many libraries.

Chapbooks

In the history of the book trade and the transmission of popular literature, the chapbook has played an important part. Of English chapbooks there is but a fair accumulation, over eight hundred. Few of these are American. There is also a fair assortment of English broadsides and street slip ballads. Foreign chapbooks make a strong showing. There are over 300 French, 100 German, 30 Dutch, 220 Italian, 60 Portuguese, and 100 Spanish ones, with a few in other languages.

Gypsies are represented extensively. Notable features are several volumes of scrapbooks on the gypsies of Great Britain in the early part of the century, compiled by W. Townley Searle, sometime secretary of the Gypsy Lore Society; and Watts-Dunton’s copy, with notes and clippings inserted by him, of Lavengro.

The second great division of the White
collection, folklore being the first, is Orientalia. The Orient may have appealed to Mr. White because of his interest in the Oriental game of chess or because of its glamorous associations. Either inducement was strengthened in 1899, the year in which his gifts began, by the American acquisition of the Philippines. As Mr. White used to point out, this marked a new era for the United States. For the first time we were brought face to face with an Oriental people and with the problem of governing them. We knew almost nothing of their past, their literature, their traditions, or their ways of thought. The success of the British and the Dutch in ruling Eastern peoples was due largely to the patient work of scholars who had investigated every aspect of the life of the subject races. In line with this, the White collection was designed to be a national headquarters for Oriental information. Particularly did Mr. White wish the Oriental to interpret himself directly rather than through secondary material. Comprehensive collections of Oriental literature, in text and in translation, therefore, were acquired.

The Orient is so large a field that it has been necessary to limit purchases to the period before European penetration. India is an exception, for reasons stated later.

Oriental texts are bought as liberally as possible. Except for Chinese and Japanese, the material is largely in Western editions, not many Far Eastern imprints having been acquired. Periodicals have been particularly sought. Of forty-eight less well-known journals the first edition of the Union List of Serials showed that the White collection had as many as Harvard, Yale, Wisconsin, the New York Public Library, and the Library of Congress together. Though the second edition of the serial list might qualify this showing, it would still leave the White collection in a strong position.

As for individual topics, and without im-

Emeneau's list suggests a like superiority for India's modern literature, except for such libraries as the Justin E. Abbott Marathi books in Columbia. Sinhalese is particularly strong, the basis being a group of 250 pamphlets, mostly in verse, formerly owned by Ananda K. Coomaraswamy. From Sir George A. Grierson's library came a group of thirty Hindustani chapbooks. There are seventy books in Kanarese.

Arabic Collection

The Arabic collection is large. Only classical Arabic is sought; present-day texts may be found in the library's foreign division. It is thought that nearly all the important classical authors are to be found here. There are thirty-eight texts of romances of the Bani Hilal cycle.

The most important features in Arabic are the Koran and the Arabian Nights. Of the Koran there are versions in thirty-eight languages, perhaps the widest variety that has been brought together, including Georgian, Javanese, and Swahili. Among them are the 1543 edition of the dialogue of Mohammed and the Jew Abdias (containing the first attempt to translate any part of the Koran into a Western language) and a Chinese Moslem book of selections with the Arabic in Chinese transliteration—a linguistic phenomenon indeed.

The Arabian Nights collection numbers about six hundred volumes, without attempting to gather children's editions, retellings of Lane, etc., in fifty-four languages.

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The British Museum Catalogue of Arabic Printed Books, with the supplement, records translations in only eighteen languages.

The Persian collection is also important, having some unpublished historical manuscripts of the first rank. The rarest book is perhaps the handsome edition of the poems of Sultan Selim the Grim, issued for Sultan Abdul Hamid by Kaiser Wilhelm II.

The Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam is represented by some six hundred volumes, mostly from the library of the late Clarke W. Walton of Monroe, N.C. It is rich in privately printed and finely bound editions, to which the Rubaiyat naturally lends itself. As Potter's bibliography shows, the versions put out by private presses and amateur printers are so many that the most ambitious collector might well despair of attaining completeness, but more than a good beginning has been made here.

While all Oriental literary languages are represented by at least their chief works, two groups, not large numerically, may be singled out because they appear superior to those available elsewhere in the United States. These are Jagataic Turki and Burmese.

India Material

India material is comprehensive, particularly on archeology. Until recently, in accordance with the general principle adopted for the Orient, no attempt was made to gather material on the period since 1750. The acquisition of the Ernest Stutz collection of 234 manuscripts, aggregating nineteen thousand pages, covering British India from 1750 to 1850, made it desirable to extend accordingly the date for book buying. The Stutz manuscripts include letters of George III, Wellington, Clive, the younger Pitt, Cornwallis, and Warren Hastings, with many letters by and to Dundas. There is an important group of books on French and Portuguese India.

On Madagascar most libraries have bought only incidentally. Some hasty comparisons suggest that our 350 volumes may be the largest group available in the country. Some manuscripts came with the Stutz collection. There is also important material, both manuscript and printed, on the neighboring islands of Mauritius and the Seychelles.

Oriental religions are well represented. Particularly notable are the collections on Zoroastrianism and Sikhism.

The cutting off of the European market has encouraged strengthening the collection's resources on Latin American archeology and folklore. This is in line with the library's new Latin American room, which houses several thousand volumes, including many long sets. The White collection's facsimiles of Mexican and Maya codices are impressive, including most of those issued in the last decade by the Mexican government in editions of twenty-five and thirty copies. Much material in Spanish remains to be gathered, but a few years should show a considerable difference.

Incunabula number only slightly over fifty, but it is to be considered that many of the White collection's subjects did not have books devoted to them in the fifteenth century. There are eight incunabula containing the Gesta Romanorum; unfortunately the first edition, printed at Cologne by Ulrich Zell about 1472, was lost at sea in 1942.

Manuscripts

There are over 1250 manuscripts, those on chess and checkers predominating. Among them are some interesting medieval volumes: a fifteenth-century text of Gautier de Châtillon's Alexandreis; an unpublished compilation of saints' lives, written probably near Rheims or Soissons; a codex containing variants of Brut's Chronicle and of the Vindicta Salvatoris; and a miscellaneous
A comprehensive collection on chess may sound to the outsider much like a collection on algebra—to be respected, no doubt, but hardly interesting. This is not the case. Zest for the visitor who does not care greatly about chess comes when he sees the illustrative material, such as poetry, fiction, and general literature containing chess matter. Thus, there is an extensive Rabelais collection because of the much-discussed chess game in the fifth book. Of Castiglione's Book of the Courtier, the sixteenth-century Emily Post, there are fifty-seven editions printed in 1600 and before. Among other authors not ordinarily looked for in a chess library but extensively represented here are Benjamin Franklin (for his Morals of Chess), the Gesta Romanorum, and Polydore Virgil. Of the Russian translation of Franklin's "Morals" (St. Petersburg, 1791) but two other copies have been reported: one owned by King Albert of Belgium and the other by Czar Nicholas II. The copy of the first edition of Through the Looking-Glass is an autographed presentation copy from Sir John Tenniel.

Collection of Ninety Thousand

All told, the White collection numbers about ninety thousand volumes, and additions come at the rate of two to three thousand annually. Supplementing it, there may be reckoned the more popular books on like subjects bought for the library’s circulating department.

The collection is a monument to a public spirited citizen who, like too few of his kind, stepped out of the usual routine of enriching a university or a museum and remembered the service that could be rendered to the community by a public library.
Personnel in Cataloging Departments

The paper following, directs attention to certain considerations in cataloging which have received less attention than have the technical aspects. It was read before the New York Regional Catalog Group, Nov. 24, 1944.

Some time ago, in a review article in College and Research Libraries, attention was called to three aspects of personnel management in cataloging departments. These were (1) the alleged lack of discriminatory powers and responsibility on the part of catalogers, (2) the relation of administrative organization to production, and (3) the absence of a recruiting program for cataloging personnel. It is proposed to consider each of these in relation to the general problem of cataloging personnel in libraries, primarily from the standpoint of the subordinate members of the staff.

Five general observations concerning present cataloging personnel may be made. The first is that cataloging is predominantly a feminine occupation. Probably this is truer in cataloging than in some other areas of librarianship. Out of 803 names of persons engaged in cataloging, as given in the Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook for 1937, only twenty-five, or a little more than 3 per cent, were men. This figure does not include male librarians and teachers who did no cataloging. The percentage is probably less at present.

The second observation is that catalogers, probably more so than other librarians, are inclined to stay fixed in their jobs. That is, there is less mobility from library to library. This is probably truer of the older members of the staff, who are in many instances lacking college and/or library school training, than of recently trained graduates. This has changed considerably during the war period.

The third observation that may be made arises from the war. There is considerable difficulty at present in getting new catalogers. Practically the only way is to attract them by higher salaries from positions in other libraries. It is almost impossible to get male catalogers. At the same time, many libraries are suffering from accumulating arrears. This is a serious situation, since it is likely that libraries will not be in a position to process quickly the foreign materials which may be acquired after the war.

The fourth point to be observed is that salaries for catalogers, considering the experience and training expected of them and the concentrated work they must do, are relatively low. So long as salaries are low, positions in cataloging departments will go begging. This will be especially true at such times as the present, when the practice in most good libraries is to recruit catalogers who have both academic and professional training.

The final observation concerns catalogers as people. Many statements made in the past have been devoted to such matters as efficiency and job analysis, as if these were things dissociated from human beings.
Ability of Catalogers

Attention may now be turned to the first of the three points to be discussed—the ability of catalogers. Recently there appeared in the Wilson Library Bulletin two relevant articles, one a rebuttal of the other. The first, "A Philosophical Analysis of Cataloging" by L. H. Kirkpatrick, contained some caustic criticisms. His remarks were summarized by Marian C. Conroy and M. Lucille Duffy in the second paper, "Cataloger Bites Dog." According to them, Kirkpatrick accused catalogers of bigotry, chronic indecision, donkey-like stupidity, would-be omniscience, and nauseating egoism.

Actually not all of these appellatives were used so explicitly; nevertheless, catalogers lately have been taking considerable verbal pummeling. In a sense, they have become the scapegoat for most of the library's ills. If it is observed here that catalogers are inclined to follow, rather than to question, no slight is intended. In many ways they are no different from other librarians in this respect. Yet there is some evidence that many of them give the impression of being introverted. To support this it may be pointed out that cataloging as a back-stage or off-the-scene process too frequently has been considered by administrators as a type of work that the less competent individuals, and the misfits on the staff, should be given.

This attitude, however, gradually is being changed. The professional and personal qualities of members of the cataloging departments in well-administered libraries are being subjected to the same rigorous examination as those of other members of the staff. The various personnel classification and pay plans appear to recognize this fact.

The real criticisms that have been made of catalogers may be stated as follows: They are rule-bound and possess little imagination. They have failed to examine their work in the light of the needs of the users. They have neglected to examine the product of cataloging in relation to other library tools, and they are not concerned with cost. They resent criticism of their work and oppose change. Probably all of these charges are true to some extent. Yet catalogers have been among the first to suggest modifications in practices, to meet the wishes of reference and circulation librarians, and to retain an open mind concerning proposals for altering cataloging practices. Catalogers as a group are flexible and will fit into an efficient administrative organization if administrative principles relating to personnel are properly applied. Catalogers, no less than other types of workers, are human beings. They are interested in such things as security, adequacy of pay, fairness, recognition, social approval, occupational adjustment, acceptable working conditions, exercise of initiative and responsibility, and the right to be heard. These are normal demands of all workers, and catalogers have a right to expect that they will be met.

Consider for a moment the question of adequate compensation. Underpaid catalogers are not likely to be interested in such things as attacking back problems, clearing arrears, suggesting new procedures, or developing simple practices. In fact, just the opposite may be true. Like other workers, they are likely to be idle at times and may be tempted now and then to ignore authority, to waste supplies, to handle equipment carelessly, to make errors sufficiently to require constant revision, to do personal work during regular hours of service, to visit and talk about subjects not related to cataloging, and to be tardy and absent.
Many grievances reflect the resentment and frustration of the individual whose personal progress has been blocked. For example, a worker may be subjected to continuous shift in his surroundings and even in himself. This requires persistent efforts of the administration to assist him in making adjustment. It is often difficult to understand behavior changes, and, because there is no set pattern to these, the head of a department should not be surprised if they appear unexpectedly.

Administrative Organization and Production

Even though catalogers have been accused of lacking discrimination and a sense of responsibility, this situation usually reflects poor leadership. A well-organized cataloging department in a well-organized library will be as efficient as a well-organized unit in any type of endeavor. If there is a pay system understandable to all, if employees are given a chance to advance, if workers are supervised carefully and are allowed latitude to use judgment and to exercise responsibility, if favorable working conditions are provided, if all staff members are treated on an equitable basis and are rewarded for meritorious service, there is no reason to believe that cataloging production should not reach the highest possible point.

A happy cataloging personnel is generally an efficient personnel. In order to keep a group of workers contented, the head of the department should consistently be concerned about supervision. For example, he should know at all times the progress of the flow of work, as compared with normal requirements. The efficient way to accomplish this is to delegate authority to responsible subordinates. The head also needs to know the quality of the product and the conditions under which it is turned out. As for the former, various factors may be responsible. To control the latter, the supervisor himself should travel through the department often enough, with a list of points to observe, to make adjustments on the basis of factual evidence.

The personal problems of the catalogers always require the attention of the supervisor. The head who waits for overt evidence of emotional disturbances waits too long. He should keep himself close to his group by discussing personal problems with various individuals and make such other contacts as will enable him to anticipate deviations in interest and emotional flare-ups.

In order that catalogers may not feel as if pressure is being applied to them, the supervisor should always maintain contacts with his superiors, so as to be informed of all probable changes in organization or services. For example, knowledge of an incoming gift will make it possible to protect the department against overloading. Complete information on the part of the supervisor should aid him in preparing the catalogers to meet the plans of the administration. The staff should know what is contemplated but, in order to prevent undue uneasiness, not before developments are fairly well along.

Code of Discipline

A cataloging group, just as an industrial group, evolves as a rule its own code of discipline. Restriction of output is an example of this. It is not unusual that if a cataloger produces an extraordinary amount of work she is looked on with suspicion by other members of the department. She is frequently accused of inaccuracy. Established standards of performance should eliminate this. Similarly, the laggard is regarded with suspicion and dislike. The administrator can maintain morale by removing such a person or by changing his work.

A good leader can exercise a great deal
of influence over the kind of self-discipline a group develops. If the attitude is against the interest of the library, the librarian or the head of the department must share the responsibility for neglect or failure to direct it properly. The head, likewise, may have other important effects upon the group. If he is fair to the workers, while protecting the interest of the library, he will find that his subordinates respond. If he places the interest of the library above those of the workers, at the latter's expense, he may discover that the staff members are not only uncooperative but antagonistic. The wise administrator also will seek out in the cataloging staff the individuals who can participate in projects and committee work. Incidentally this will give them a library outlook rather than a departmental one.

An efficient cataloging department is usually characterized by the active participation of all staff members. One of the best ways of developing this is to solicit suggestions. Suggestions so derived serve two purposes. They stimulate the worker and they serve as a basis for singling out for promotion the more competent individuals in the department. Moreover, a well-regulated suggestion plan should improve methods of work and reduce the cost of cataloging. There, of course, should be a wise distribution of praise and reprimands when occasions warrant them.

There are other ways of applying administrative principles to cataloging production. The establishment of quotas and efficiency ratings have been frowned upon, but this practice should not be discarded without due consideration of the possibilities involved. The presence of adequate mechanical equipment, staff manuals, codes for preparing copy, reference works, and sufficient clerical assistance—these undeniably aid in providing a strong underpinning for efficient organization.

Recently Amy Wood Nyholm remarked that she has “noticed no library worker more subject to wearing, demanding, and exacting pressures than is the head cataloger of a large and important library who fully understands and accepts his responsibility.” He must turn to account the malingerers, the sporadic workers, and the slavish rule-followers who may have got into his staff group. He must reconcile the administrator who talks only in terms of costs. He must guard against the reference and circulation librarians who consider the catalog as the fountainhead of all answers.

**Solution**

What is the solution to all this? How can the catalog administrator and his staff do the things that are expected or demanded of the cataloging department? First of all, there must be a definite program or policy for cataloging, based on the needs of the users of the individual library. This requires that the functional aspects of cataloging be thoroughly investigated. Herman H. Henkle and his staff at the Library of Congress are studying this problem, and it is likely that their findings will be useful to other catalogers and administrators.

Second, a clear differentiation of the professional and the clerical aspects of cataloging is needed. If there can be careful analyses of jobs and distribution of duties, the professional staff members need not be given the time-consuming routine tasks that can be handled satisfactorily by clerical workers.

Third, this differentiation should make cataloging a more attractive occupation than it is now. Then there could be a recruiting program for “able and intelligent young men and women of sound judgment who have the personal traits of keen

*(Continued on page 248)*
Inverse Time Order and Subject Filing

Mr. Kleist, formerly at John Crerar Library and now at Yale, submitted this paper early in 1944 on the basis of experience and observation at the former library.

One of the problems of which libraries have always been acutely aware, as the literature of the profession eloquently testifies, is that posed by the barriers of one kind or another which separate the reader from the books he wants for his information or delectation. That a satisfactory solution has never been found is not surprising in view of the complexity of the problem, involving as it does both psychological and technical or mechanical factors. Paradoxically, but obviously, that tool which is commonly considered to be the “key” to the library’s resources, namely, the catalog, is not without numerous peculiar pitfalls of its own for the unwary and uninstructed. Since every librarian is familiar with the vagaries of filing order and subject headings, these pitfalls need not be described here. Because of them, however, the catalog is not so much a key to the library’s book collection as a door or lock, the real key to which is an exact and detailed knowledge of the filing arrangement and even, in the case of a classed catalog, of the classification scheme, since the alphabetical subject index to the classed catalog is not an infallible guide. Few outside of the profession, however, have such knowledge.

In a utopian frame of mind it is possible to imagine the library catalog of the future as having a supplement in the form of a list of subject headings in plain view, say on the walls surrounding the catalog, so that the reader could locate his subject in the same easy way in which he now finds a room number from the directory on the first floor of the modern skyscraper office building. This would enable him quickly to orientate himself among the great number of subjects.

It is further possible to imagine that, having found his subject in the list, he could go to a catalog containing trays of such a nature (perhaps extensible, with tough but flexible cards) that the cards could be manipulated so as to lie flat and expose to view just enough of each card in the tray to show the author and title, in the manner of the visible or Kardex file, thus eliminating the laborious thumbing of every card necessary at present. Visionary? To be sure. And quite impossible or at best impracticable? Perhaps—today. As for tomorrow, the answer must be left to our friends in the library equipment business. The problem is hereby discreetly placed in their collective lap.

The main purpose of introducing at this point the foregoing digression into utopia was to emphasize how far present library catalogs fall short of what they ideally

1 Van Hoesen, Henry Bartlett, and Walter Frank K. Bibliography, Practical, Enumerative, Historical. New York City, Scribner’s, 1928, p. 139.
should be: not doors which can be unlocked only with time-consuming laboriousness, but open windows, permitting a direct and immediate view of the record of the library’s resources. In the absence of any such radical modifications each library must be content with whatever refinements are available and suitable to make the catalog more effective.

**Chronological Arrangement of Catalog Cards**

A distinctive feature of the John Crerar Library public catalog which its readers find very useful is the chronological arrangement of the cards in the alphabetical subject and the classed catalogs. (These are separate from the author catalog.) The cards are filed under each subject or class number, not in the usual alphabetical arrangement by author, but by date of publication, in inverse chronological order, so that the card for the latest book files in front. This enables the reader to see at once what is the most recent book on any particular subject, a matter of prime importance in a large library specializing in technology and the sciences.

The scheme is not a new one, having been adopted by J.C.L. when it was established in 1894. A decade earlier its use at Columbia College Library was described by W. S. Biscoe and its partial use in a library in Vienna was reported at about the same time. Mr. Biscoe, however, was chiefly interested in the application of the time order to books on open shelves rather than as an aid in searching the catalog. C. W. Andrews, first librarian of J.C.L., in urging a more widespread use of the scheme, also emphasized particularly its usefulness for this purpose.

While access to the stacks has lost little, if any, of its importance in college and university libraries, it now plays but a relatively minor role in a library such as J.C.L. It is, therefore, with the value of the time order in locating books through the catalog that the present article is concerned. It is written as the experience of one library and in the full realization that circumstances alter cases.

**Finding Latest Acquisitions**

Although W. S. Merrill discussed this subject a number of years ago, it is perhaps not amiss to call attention at least once in every decade to a scheme at once so simple and so useful. Moreover, Mr. Merrill was concerned primarily with answering objections which might be raised against it by proponents of the alphabetical arrangement and, for the rest, did not go beyond a statement of its value in showing quickly the latest acquisitions of a library under any subject.

This everyday function of the time order is of course its most obvious and most important one. If the latest book on, say, air power has been written by a man whose name begins with Z, the alphabetical arrangement places the card last under the subject, whereas the time order brings it to the front where the reader will see it first. Under the usual arrangement, if the reader is not familiar with authors writing in this field he might not reach the latest book until he had examined every card filed under the subject. If he had little time and less patience, as is unfortunately often the case, he would probably select a title before he had come to the

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last card and would not be aware that a more recent one was available.

**Latest Bibliographies, Also**

On the other hand, from the standpoint of the reader who wishes to do more extensive research, the ability to get at once the latest books (even if the latest happen not to be the best) offers the further advantage that the bibliography which in all probability would be included in one of these would acquaint him not only with other important books in that or related fields but with the periodical literature as well. Thus he gains in two ways: he is spared the tedious search through the periodical indexes, which he now needs to consult only for the period subsequent to the date of his book, and he is the beneficiary of the "sifting" of the literature which the author has already carried out for him.

In addition to this everyday function, however, there are other situations in which the time order helps out immensely. A few examples will make this clear. A reader seeking the exact date when a certain improvement was first incorporated into the steam engine is unable to find any reference to it in the recent historical literature or in the comprehensive descriptive treatises. Since he knows the approximate date, it is a matter of a few seconds to examine the group of subject cards of books published about that time and to select a history of the steam engine, where the desired information may be found. Because improvements often lose their relative importance with the passage of time, recent books are not as likely to mention them as are the contemporary ones. An approach such as this is impossible with the alphabetical arrangement. Provided one existed, a bibliography might turn the trick since the arrangement is usually chronological, though it would not be as convenient as the catalog with the time order.

"**Catching Up** on Latest Publications"

Frequently also a reader will come in to "catch up" on his subject and will be interested only in the literature published within the last few years. The alphabetical arrangement necessitates his looking through all the cards filed under the subject, whereas the time order segregates the material chronologically, and the guide cards marking off every few years quickly show him how much material of interest to him is in the library. Similarly the literature published during any other period may quickly be examined if that is the approach the problem requires. For example, not infrequently short subject bibliographies of recent books based on the library's resources are prepared at the request of readers. This is a relatively simple matter if, instead of all the cards, only those of the last few years need be examined.

The time order further stands the library in good stead in the matter of the "weeding out" of books which have outlived their usefulness, already mentioned early in this century by an English librarian. Today it is a rash librarian indeed who will take it upon himself to discard this book or that one as of no further use to anyone. The problem is envisaged rather as one requiring the segregation of entire groups of books for storage elsewhere than on the shelves of the library proper. Here again the chronological order will save incalculable time if the segregation is made mainly on a chronological basis.

Two other advantages may be mentioned in conclusion. Mr. Andrews pointed out that the time order "provides a most convenient method of dividing scientific and technical books into those little used and those more used, in order to give the latter the most accessible shelves."

in the catalog this arrangement spares the older cards the unnecessary wear and tear which they receive under the alphabetical arrangement, since, in the main, readers will use only the more recent cards grouped in front. Finally, when the purchase of a book or the making of analytics of a set is being considered, the time order readily reveals the up-to-dateness of the library's resources in the field in question, a factor which may be decisive in determining whether the purchase or the analytics should be made.

**Disadvantages**

There are, of course, certain respects in which the time order shows at a disadvantage. Not infrequently a reader will request a book by an author with a very common name, such as Smith or Wood, first name unknown. If the catalog is full of Wood's, as it is sure to be, the subject approach may be a lifesaver if the arrangement is alphabetical, provided always that the subject is specific enough so that one will not have to search half a dozen subjects. The filing of the cards, too, requires a good deal of care. The corollary of the chronological arrangement is the use of time numbers as book numbers, but because of certain exceptions it is necessary to examine both the imprint date and the time number when filing.

These are minor disadvantages, however, which weigh very lightly in the balance in comparison with what the inverse time order tells by placing the latest card first.

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**The Value of Russian to the Reference Librarian**

*(Continued from page 198)*

In closing we may summarize by saying that even at present a reference librarian with some knowledge of Russian is needed in any library where there are Russian books and there is every sign that the demand for such knowledge of Russian will greatly increase in the postwar years.
Local Imprints in Libraries of State Universities and Other Higher Institutions

An answer is here given as to what attention some college and university libraries are paying to the development of printing in their geographical areas.

Any question of collecting imprints, as such, can scarcely be considered vital to the winning of the war. For the duration emphasis is properly placed, even here where no cities have been bombed, on the preservation of records. One of our post-war duties, however, will be to insure that our source materials are in the hands of those especially equipped to house and administer them, for many, among them the writer, are gloomy enough to expect another World War within the span of a generation. Next time our shores may not be immune to invasion and destruction.

A satisfactory definition of “local imprints” (for our purposes) is almost as challenging as a good definition of “the law.” What now is in mind is printed materials of almost every kind which issue from the presses of an ascertained locality. “Collecting” is used both passively and actively. There is little question about the importance of this type of acquisition to municipal, county, state, and, especially, historical and antiquarian, libraries, but there is some doubt about its relative usefulness in college and university libraries. Concern with local imprints as such is not a primary function of academic institutions, while it most certainly is of the other types of libraries mentioned.

Just how valuable such collections are in various situations could be determined only by a complete survey of the scene, including the policies and practices of all types of libraries, the history and purpose of the practices, and the attitudes of administrators and patrons. Such a survey and such investigations are obviously not a task for one person. The work must be done—probably has already been done to some extent—cooperatively and under the aegis of an organization that can raise the funds and supply the personnel. Whether any group would interest itself, sometime, in such a project depends upon the prospect of support from the institutions concerned.

In this paper an endeavor has been made to discover some trends and attitudes in the collecting of local imprints by certain institutional libraries. The findings are uneven and often meager but they may serve as straws to show which way the wind is blowing and as some indication of the probable success of a larger effort. Enquiries were sent to all the state universities, to some state colleges, and, as of possible interest by way of contrast, to the oldest privately-endowed college or university in each state where one exists.
Fifty-three state universities and colleges were approached and forty-three private ones, making a total of ninety-six. Only thirty-five (the fair average of one-third) replied, among them being three or four which had nothing to report. Of these thirty-five, twenty-seven were state universities. Only eight non-state institutions responded in any way. Putting it the other way around, sixty-one out of the ninety-six libraries solicited failed to reply; twenty-six of these were state universities (arbitrarily designated hereafter as universities) and thirty-five were non-state institutions, usually privately endowed (designated as colleges). There is no need to go into the reasons for this disparity at length, but sometimes recently it has been observed that the privately-endowed colleges and universities are hard put to it to maintain incomes to compare with those of state universities. It is certain, of course, that among the non-state institutions are men’s colleges whose healthy existence has been depending in great measure on the school program of the military. Now that this program is to be drastically curtailed, it is understandable if the matter now under consideration seems not pertinent to some librarians.

The following table of statistics reveals some significant reactions, notably the good representation from New England and the complete lack of it from the Middle Atlantic States, which include New York.

In the questionnaire, "collecting," "local," and "imprints," were closely and conspicuously defined. And yet throughout the returns there were some replies that betrayed failure to grasp the meaning of these terms. In any case, most of the institutions stated at once that they made a conscious effort to collect imprints for their localities, although four, including two colleges, said that they did not. The curious thing about it is that four universities were quite noncommittal. As would be expected, with state universities stealing the show,

**TABLE I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTIONS REPLYING AND NOT REPLYING</th>
<th>United States</th>
<th>South</th>
<th>New England</th>
<th>Far West</th>
<th>Midwest</th>
<th>Middle Atlantic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Number Approached</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Universities</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-State Institutions</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number Replying</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Universities</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-State Institutions</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number Not Replying</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Universities</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-State Institutions</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*JUNE, 1945*
the great majority of these reporting institutions consider the state the happy hunting ground for local imprints. Three of the eight colleges try to cover their municipalities, though four of them also try to cover the state. One privately-endowed college is interested in early Americana (hardly local), while one university and a college attempt a regional coverage.

Over half of all the libraries reporting fail to describe their methods of seeking imprints. Most of those answering on this matter say that their routine is a part of their routine for ordering most items, and supposedly this is the case with the silent majority also. In only two instances is the soliciting left to nonlibrary or teaching members of the institutional staff. Only a half dozen, including one college, have been more than ordinarily successful, while five or six each say results have been “good” or “fair.” Several, including most of the colleges, make no reply on this point, and three universities find it impossible to be definite. A question as to personal contacts with influential persons was also ignored by several, but two universities and a college assert that they make no contacts, while four of the former are militant about it. Five meet with varying success.

Special Quarters

Most of the universities have special quarters for housing their imprints, but so many of these are special rooms for the “ana,” or space set aside in the regular stacks, that it may be questioned whether they are not for all kinds of material about the states in question rather than for items printed in those states. A few institutions, including four colleges, have no special facilities for their imprints, and three (one college) take care of the matter through separate records only. Two in each case do not reply. The personnel assigned to the care of imprints and to the superintendence of their quarters is usually submerged by other work, such as that of an order department, but sometimes it is in addition to the regular force and even, in one instance, outside the library.

No Cooperative Arrangements

After years of effort among progressive librarians to reach helpful understandings among themselves on regional collecting, it is disappointing to find that over half the reporting libraries have no cooperative arrangement on imprints with other colleges and universities. A handful admit such general exchange understandings as are probably common to most, while a half dozen leave the collecting more or less to other institutions in their own areas.

In some of the preceding paragraphs there is described, with comment, what actually goes on among the thirty-five colleges and universities. These practices do not necessarily, of course, represent policies. They probably are a mixture of what librarians want done and what they have to do. The respondents have some definite ideas, however, on questions of policy and they have stated them. Fourteen (including those at three colleges) believe that their libraries should collect local imprints as extensively as possible. Half this number (including representatives of two colleges) are of the opinion that the responsibility for collecting on a state-wide basis should be assumed but should be shared with others, while those at two colleges observe a similar policy with regard to municipalities. A librarian of one great state university observes that it is impossible to say how extensive collecting should be “until it is known what other libraries are doing.”

The funds needed to implement collecting, however extensive, vary from $300-
### TABLE II

**CHARACTER AND NUMBERS OF PIECES IN LOCAL IMPRINTS COLLECTIONS**

Numerals in curves indicate number of institutions reporting for each heading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Universities</th>
<th>Colleges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Books</td>
<td>Excellent (3); Fair (2). Several hundred volumes (1); 3000. (1); 12000. (1)</td>
<td>Fair (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pamphlets</td>
<td>Excellent (1); Good (1). 4000 (1); 5500 (1); 6000 (1)</td>
<td>Very good (1); Fair (1). Several hundred (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almanacs</td>
<td>Excellent (2); “Fair to Good” (1); Poor (1). Less than 1000 (2)</td>
<td>Excellent (1); Poor (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>Excellent (1); Good (2); Fair (1). “About 125 state newspapers” (1); 161. (1); over 500. (1); 1500-2000. (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official government documents</td>
<td>Excellent (3); Good (2); Strong in state documents (2)</td>
<td>Excellent (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadsides and broadsheets, and commercial catalogs and announcements</td>
<td>Replies so scattering as to indicate little appreciation of their value as local imprints</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music scores; maps and charts; atlases</td>
<td>Interest in these from imprint standpoint so uncertain as to be questionable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other classes of material</td>
<td>About 100 v. each of magazine and periodical titles (2), (one university emphasizing the Southern states); Theses (2); Publications of constituent schools and colleges (2); “Reports of historical, agricultural, and patriotic societies, operatic librettos, and political literature” (1); An excellent collection of town reports (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$500 a year, according to some universities, to $2,000-$3,500, according to others. Librarians in two universities and a college believe a “modest” stipend would be enough, while two others think no special fund is needed. More money is necessary, a few concede, but just how much remains a mystery. Funds, of course, are also the wherewithal of adequate personnel. Several librarians would like to have one full-time assistant for such work, while two think they could use more. Two others, including one at a college, see no need for additional help, while eight universities and one college made no reply.

What provision would have to be made to house an ideal growing collection depends, of course, upon the conditions peculiar to the library in question. Librarians are reluctant to express themselves on this matter. Eight do not comment at all and six (including one representing a college) say no special provision is required. The respondents at four universities and two colleges want more space in the stacks or in their special rooms, while those at three others suggest entirely new rooms. Obviously, these estimates apply to local needs and
provide no general criteria for the housing of "an ideal growing collection." It seems hardly possible that useful estimates could be devised.

For many years the National Association of State Libraries has discussed the feasibility of central clearinghouses in states or regions to receive and distribute printed matter for appropriate participating members. Such a clearinghouse for local imprints has the approval of thirteen of the libraries in the present group (including two colleges), and it is worth considering whether state libraries and academic institutions could not join forces in one common agency in each designated area. Some of the librarians here consulted (two of them at colleges) are lukewarm about a clearinghouse; two, both at colleges, are against it; and three of those at universities express no opinion.

A wide variation of figures and estimates, both exact and indefinite, was returned in answer to an itemized enquiry into the strength of local imprints collections. Rather than to generalize and summarize here as in the foregoing paragraphs, a presentation of the answers in tabular form may be more effective. In a dozen instances no statistics were given or available. With one exception, all of these were cases at state institutions.

Extended College Library Service to Teachers

(Continued from page 205)

put for the enrichment of teaching. Instances could be multiplied indefinitely but one is sufficient to show how the services of the library in a teacher-training institution can be extended, not only beyond the campus, but beyond the intangible bounds of the actual curriculum of the institution.
Management of a Dormitory Library

Some of the details of handling an ancillary student collection are here treated by the classifier at the University of Kansas Library.

The arrangement and administration of a dormitory library at the University of Kansas have occasioned the development of a system of classification that may be of interest to librarians elsewhere. The scheme is a modification of the Dewey system adapted to the needs of an extracurricular reading library with a few background books. The library with which this paper deals is in Carruth Hall, one of the four cooperative dormitories for men. It serves all four dormitories, although each of the other three has a small book collection of its own. As it is a memorial library, all the books have been gifts or purchases from a gift fund. The library is entirely independent of the university library but is administered by a committee consisting of one member of the department of English, an interested alumsna who is the wife of a faculty member, the librarian of the bureau of general information, and the classifier of the university library. This committee works in cooperation with the student librarian.

In developing plans for the arrangement and administration of the library, publications of numerous authorities were consulted. Excellent material is available on the general question of dormitory and fraternity libraries and book selection, but little has been written on the subject of arrangement. This is probably due to the fact that most of the collections described are selected and administered by college or university libraries. Thus the dormitory library, and sometimes the fraternity library, functions somewhat like a branch or depository library.

Branscomb in his Teaching with Books includes an informative chapter on the general question of dormitory libraries, with emphasis on "course" libraries. Carnovsky has written of the same type of library at the University of Chicago, and Morgan regarding it at Harvard. As to arrangement, Carnovsky says: "The books were not classified. They were arranged on the shelves in several large and general groups: reference books; the optional readings of the four general courses, each course represented in its own section; poetry; drama; fiction; and general nonfiction. Within each group the books were shelved alphabetically by author." At the time Morgan

1 The library is the Alberta Linton Corbin Memorial Library. It was established after her death by friends of Miss Corbin, to carry out her expressed wish that books be provided for the Carruth Hall Library. During her years at the university, Miss Corbin was a student and later a colleague of William Herbert Carruth for whom the hall is named. Books from the private libraries of Miss Corbin and of Mr. Carruth form a part of the present collection.


wrote his article, Harvard had tried the L.C. classification unsuccessfully for the house libraries and had decided to work out a scheme of its own. An example of the other type of dormitory library—the "reading for fun" library—is the Stephens College plan as described by Johnson.\textsuperscript{5,6} But this again is administered through the college library.

Material on fraternity libraries is interesting but did not quite meet our needs, although our library is similar to a large fraternity library and has many of the same problems. Drury\textsuperscript{7} supplies essential information for the smaller library of this kind in his article "The Library in the Fraternity House." This gives a list of basic books, references to other book lists available at the time, and suggestions for a simple classification and for administration. Huntington's paper\textsuperscript{8} on fraternity house libraries at the University of Illinois contains suggestions for a small library. Onthank\textsuperscript{9} and Lewis\textsuperscript{10} treat of collections lent by the college library to dormitories and fraternities. All of these articles were helpful in various ways but not satisfying on the question of arrangement.

\textbf{Beginnings of Library}

When we began to organize the library, there were about one thousand volumes. A gift of over six hundred volumes from Mr. and Mrs. William Allen White in 1941 formed the nucleus of the collection. Gifts from various individuals, subscriptions to book clubs, and purchases from the gift fund constituted the rest. When the White collection arrived, a "finding list" was made on cards. This information included the author, brief title, and date. For a time this list was the only record kept, and the books were placed on the shelves with no particular arrangement. When the demand arose for some sort of grouping, the committee was formed to consider the question. Student assistants were available without cost, since each resident of a cooperative dormitory is required to work from nine to fourteen hours a week. The classifier of the university library worked out the classification scheme, presented at the end of this paper, mainly on a trial-and-error basis depending on the number of books in the group. The Dewey classification was selected as the foundation because it is used in the university library. The committee felt that if numbers could be omitted from the backs of books, the informal home atmosphere would be favored. This omission has worked out satisfactorily.

The finding list was used as a basis for the catalog. Later, title cards were added and shelf-list cards were made. A manual was prepared for the use of the student librarian who worked under the supervision of the university library classifier. Two extra copies were made, one for the university collection and one to be lent to other dormitories and fraternities.

The first part of the manual contains a history of the library and newspaper clippings concerning it. The next section is devoted to supplies. Names of library supply companies and a list of essential equipment are included, with the information that catalogs of the companies may be consulted at the office of the director of university libraries or may be secured from the company. Following this is the main
part, outlining the duties of the librarian, which include acknowledging all gifts in writing; preparing books for the shelves; cataloging and shelflisting; taking inventory and recording lost and discarded books; and explaining rules, use, and history of the library.

Instructions for making author, title, shelflist, and guide cards are given in detail, with sample cards. The classification scheme, with instructions and explanations, forms a large part of this division. A copy of the Dewey’s *Abridged Decimal Classification* is kept in the library, and the librarian is urged to consult the tables and index for help. He is instructed to classify books before or at the same time the cataloging is done, so that the number may be included on the cards and written in the book without an extra operation.

In the division on rules and use are instructions for charging and returning books. A charging book is provided, in which the student borrower signs his name, the author and title of the book taken, and the date. No length of time is set for keeping books out, but the librarian is instructed to go through the charging record occasionally and call in any that have been on loan for an unreasonable period. Books are returned to a shelf marked “Return books here.” The librarian cancels the charges and shelves the books.

The last section of the manual is given over to miscellaneous material: sample bookplates, lists of special collections, and anything else that should be preserved in the records. All instructions are given in an elementary manner so that untrained students may understand and administer the library with a minimum of supervision. Two years have passed since its organization, but in spite of the vicissitudes of the times, with rapidly changing personnel, the library is functioning smoothly and effectively.

The classification scheme, as used and as set forth in the manual, is as follows:

- **200** Philosophy. Ethics. Religion.
  - 200 includes books that would classify in the Dewey scheme in 100. We have combined 100 and 200 under 200.
- **300** Social questions.
- **320** Political science and government.
- **327** Foreign relations. Diplomacy. Peace. War. (General. Special wars go in history)
- **600** Science. Health.
  - Books which would class in the Dewey 500 go here, since we have combined 500 and 600 under 600.
- **790** Sports. Hobbies. Amusements.
- **800** Class all literature here except:
  - **811** Poetry
  - **812** Drama
  - Fiction (no number)
  - **M** Mysteries
- **900** History.
  - Class all history here except World War I and II (940) and U.S. (973)
- **910** Description and travel.
- **B** Biography.
  - **B** (alone) collections (Shelve 910 and B before 900 in order to keep history together)
  - B as B for individual name Lincoln
- **940** World Wars I and II.
- **973** U.S. and state history.
- **R** Reference books: encyclopedias, dictionaries, statistics, etc.
- **T** Textbooks.
The American College Society Library and the College Library

Mrs. Storie has abbreviated for the readers of College and Research Libraries a master's essay which she presented at the School of Library Service, Columbia University, in 1938.

This article reports a study of college society libraries in the nineteenth century and was undertaken to provide a supplementary chapter in the history of the American college library. The closing lines of Shores's history of colonial college libraries discussed the situation as it was in 1800 and stated that "the inadequacy of most of the college libraries was felt so keenly by the students that the literary societies which began to appear for the first time undertook to establish libraries as one of their major purposes."¹

Except for a few individual colleges and for statistics covering one decade, there seem to be no contemporary accounts of the early college society libraries. There are scattered later references in histories of higher education, in histories of particular colleges, and in periodical articles written after 1875. Also D. H. Sheldon's Student Life and Customs, published in 1901, gives in three chapters a fairly extensive treatment of student societies. But none of these sources has anything to say in detail about the contribution of the society library to the college library, and only indirectly does any one of them discuss the value of the society libraries.

At first it was the purpose to show merely the value of the society library to the college library. Before the value of the libraries could be discovered, however, the printed or manuscript catalogs of these libraries had to be located; and before the catalogs could be located, the colleges which had had societies had to be determined. Examination of the society library collections at all the colleges was impossible. This part of the work was confined, therefore, to a cursory study of the value of these libraries in general and to a specific examination of the collections at one college, i.e., those of the Peithologian and the Philoxian societies at Columbia University.

Sources for Locating the Libraries

Reports and Handbooks. To help in locating colleges which had society libraries there fortunately are various government documents. The Smithsonian Institution issued in 1851 the earliest report on libraries in the United States. William J. Rhees published more extensive information in 1859, and the Commissioner of Education has included notices on public (including college) libraries in his reports at intervals since 1876. A handbook on college societies was put out in 1871. These publications, as has been indicated, cover the period after 1850 only.

Periodical Literature. Few articles re-

lating even indirectly to the subject were found in indexes to periodicals. In these accounts the society library was mentioned only in passing. With such scant information and with no references to articles written before 1850, the next approach was to go directly to educational periodicals published during the first half of the nineteenth century.

Statistics: 1828-39. In spite of the fact that no descriptions of society libraries could be located in the early journals, very interesting statistics exist in certain tables in the *American Annals of Education and Instruction* for 1834, 1835, and 1836. The 1834 volume points to an earlier source by mentioning that the editor of the *American Quarterly Register of Education* had estimated the number of students in 1830. In this journal are statistics for the years 1828, 1829, 1830, 1831, and 1833. The table in the *American Annals of Education and Instruction* for 1834 also leads to a more complete source, stating that it was "copied with some additions and variations from the *American Almanac for 1835*." The *American Almanac* was found to contain statistics on students' libraries for every year from 1830 through 1840, and its table for 1830 referred back to the *American Quarterly Register and Journal of the American Education Society*, which was the same periodical under a variant title as the *American Quarterly Register of Education* mentioned above.

Sources for Locating Catalogs

Library Card and Book Catalogs and Bibliographies. Although it is evident that the societies in general were dying out in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the number of libraries referred to in the *Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1884-85* was much greater than in earlier issues. In that report 127 colleges were listed as having societies. It mentions thirty-one other colleges as having been established before 1825, some of which presumably had societies. Material referring to these two groups totaling 158 colleges was sought in the card catalogs of Columbia University Library, the Library of Congress Depository Catalog at Columbia University, the catalogs of Teachers College Library and the New York Public Library, twenty-five printed or book catalogs of college libraries and the Boston Athenaeum, the shelflist of the Library of Congress, and, after a revision, the catalog of the library of the American Antiquarian Society.

Questionnaire. To supplement the checking of library card catalogs, a questionnaire was sent to the librarians of the colleges founded before 1850. Limitation to this period was decided upon because library catalogs had not been located for any of those founded at a later date.

Procedures and Findings

From the foregoing it can be seen that three main types of sources were located: the statistical tables (in the government reports and in the journals for 1828-40), the catalogs of society libraries, and the responses to the questionnaire. Results, therefore, depended upon interpretation of the statistics and of the responses to the questionnaire and upon evaluation of the catalogs and of a few miscellaneous sources.

Interpretation of the Statistics. The statistics brought to light some interesting facts. It was discovered that of all the colleges flourishing in 1830, 80 per cent had society libraries, and of these, nearly half had collections larger than those of their college libraries. In 1837 these libraries varied from a few hundred to 15,000 volumes, while the college libraries varied from a few hundred to 10,000 volumes, with the one exception of Harvard, which had 43,000 volumes. By 1851 only 55 per cent of the colleges reported society libraries,
with slightly over a third of these having collections larger than their college libraries. These society libraries were found in the colleges of the United States from Maine to Georgia and as far west as Missouri.

Information tabulated from the statistics in the journals from 1828-40 showed that throughout this period the society libraries at Dartmouth, Middlebury, Amherst, Yale after 1830, Washington, Williams after 1835, Jefferson and Washington, Western, Union, Geneva, Dickinson, Washington, University of North Carolina, University of Georgia in 1831 and 1832, Nashville from 1835 to 1839, Miami, and Franklin from 1836 to 1839, had larger collections than their college libraries. Also, one-third of the colleges in the New England states had more books in the libraries of their societies than in their college libraries during the decade 1830-40.

Beside the facts relating to the size of the libraries which the reports generally yielded, the report of the Smithsonian Institution for 1851 presented other information which added considerably to the picture. The descriptions for 126 college libraries vary from a paragraph to several pages and include 142 student libraries at sixty-five of these colleges. One of the items requested from the libraries was the number of hours that each was open. Forty-six of the colleges which had student libraries responded to this question, indicating that their college libraries were open for periods ranging from one hour every two weeks or a half hour once a week to "several hours" daily. At the most this probably resulted in eighteen or twenty hours a week for six of the colleges, while half of them could claim only the minimum.

Yale reported the most complete schedule: every day in the year (except Sundays and three or four public days) in term time from 10 A.M. to 1 P.M. and from 3 to 5 P.M., and in the summer commonly an hour or two more: in vacation every day from 3 to 5 hours. Added to the inconvenience of short hours, at Amherst College, was that of paying for the privilege of borrowing books at the library. These conditions show clearly why any supplementary libraries which might be developed at a college would be of great use to the students.

Interpretation of Responses to the Questionnaire. Because of the painstaking responses to the questionnaire, many additional catalogs were located, although no catalogs of society libraries were known to exist at the universities of Georgia or Virginia or at the colleges of William and Mary, Hampden-Sydney, Washington, Charleston, or at any institution in Alabama, Louisiana, Tennessee, or Kentucky. Yet the Library of Congress has a catalog for one of the society libraries at Franklin College (now the University of Georgia) and, according to the statistics quoted in the original study, nine of the sixteen institutions listed from the South had society libraries of over a thousand volumes at some time during the decade 1830-40. The libraries at the College of William and Mary were largely destroyed by fire before the Civil War, in 1859. Moreover, other colleges in all sections of the country suffered from disastrous fires throughout the whole nineteenth century. It seems probable, therefore, that many catalogs were published for libraries of which all the records are lost, except bare statistics.

Only two colleges reported the distribution of their society library collection other than to the college library. At one of these one of the libraries was sold to an individual, and at the other the books of

2 Now Trinity.
3 Now Washington and Jefferson.
4 Now University of Pittsburgh.
5 Now Hobart.
6 Now Washington and Lee.
one society were sent to "Southern colleges."

Evaluation of Miscellaneous Sources and of the Printed Catalogs of Society Libraries. That the society libraries were of value not only to the students, but an intrinsic ally, appears in certain passages taken from histories relating to colleges for which printed society library catalogs could not be found or were not available for interlibrary loan. All of these colleges were located in or west of the Appalachian Mountains or in the far South. Whatever the reason for the lack of printed catalogs for their society libraries, the quotations show that these libraries were important. The following concerns Marietta College, founded at Marietta, Ohio, in 1835:

They began at once also to collect libraries, the members donating books and assessing themselves at different times from five to fifty dollars apiece for this purpose. The high quality of the books bought may be inferred from an entry in the record book of Psi Gamma in 1847: "It was voted to expend one half of all moneys paid into the treasury for initiation fees and fines in the purchase of well authenticated histories of the early settlements of the Ohio and Mississippi Valleys."7

One of the most interesting facts discovered about a society library came from another miscellaneous source. It was found that one of the student libraries at Yale furnished the material for the beginning of that famous and invaluable reference tool, Poole's Index. Contrary to Shores's statement in Basic Reference Books that this work was undertaken in and for the college library, Poole tells in the opening paragraph of the preface to the 1882 edition of his index how the need for a key to periodical literature grew in the library at one of the literary societies; also, how by 1848 the manuscript which he had compiled for the use of his fellow students was rapidly wearing out and was finally printed as the Index to Subjects Treated in the Reviews and Other Periodicals.8 An issue of five hundred copies was made, the society sponsorship being alluded to and the immediate distribution being described, together with the purpose of the book, in a note following the introduction to the first edition:

It is yet uncertain whether a second edition of the Index, containing the improvements and additions suggested above, will be printed. Book-making is a profession that is not contemplated in the purposes and objects of our Society. This work was prepared expressly for our own accommodation, and if in securing this, we have extended it to other kindred Societies and Public Libraries, we are doubly gratified. The need of such a work is evident from the fact, that no sooner was the preparation of the work announced, than orders from abroad exceeded the whole edition. If the Society concludes to issue a second edition, it will be announced through our publishers.9

In the search for the printed catalogs of the society libraries, finally 273 different catalogs, 220 of which were printed, were discovered. Since eighteen of these 220 were not located in any library but were listed in bibliographies only and since one unique edition at the Library of Congress was missing, a maximum of 201 could have been examined. Sixty-seven per cent of these were examined at the five libraries visited or were obtained through interlibrary loans.

The American Antiquarian Society had the greatest number of unique editions outside of the colleges themselves (an edition was considered "unique" if it were available in only one of the five libraries visited and if it were not available for interlibrary loans.

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7 Beach, A. G. A Pioneer College, the Story of Marietta, p. 110.
8 Poole's Index ... Index to Subjects Treated in the Reviews and Other Periodicals. c1882. 1938. p. III.
9 Poole's Index ... 1848, p. iv.
loan). The editions available on interlibrary loan from the colleges ranked second among the sources for examining the catalogs.

It seems probable that many other catalogs existed for the libraries of the Middle States (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland) and some others for those in the South; the libraries in the Middle Western colleges, however, did not develop until a later date. The preponderance of catalogs for the society libraries of the New England colleges is probably attributable to more fortunate circumstances of preservation than existed in other sections. The disappearance of catalogs in the colleges of the South is probably due at least partially to the general disruption of education, and consequently of educational libraries, after the Civil War.

From the forewords and introductions in the catalogs it was noted that the college usually gave the society a room in which to hold its meetings and to house its library. The introductions also often contained rules and regulations. Although many of the rules of the society libraries indicated that little or no reading was done on the premises, it seems altogether probable that the society libraries were to some extent the browsing rooms of the early nineteenth century. The rooms were furnished by the societies, and in some cases separate buildings were constructed by them, as at Emory and Henry and at Princeton. Financial support was supplied to the society libraries by their members, and later when these libraries were given to the colleges their book funds often were also turned over to the colleges.

Several other attributes of the society libraries can be discovered from the book catalogs which they published. From the mere number of catalogs published a chart can be produced showing definitely the trends in the growth of the society libraries, which reached their peak by 1840, continued near this peak until 1860, and died out rapidly thereafter.

One of the most unexpected attributes of the society libraries was the range of subjects included in the collections. A preconceived idea led the author of this paper to imagine the society library as one mainly of fiction and general literature, with some drama and poetry and perhaps a few travel books, and to suppose that if any nonfiction were included, it would be in the field of religion or the Latin and Greek classics. Actually, of ninety-seven catalogs examined, none was found devoted solely to literature. Sixty-seven of these ninety-seven were classified, having from four to twenty-seven subject divisions.

To ascertain the quality of books included within the varied classifications, the author compared twenty-five catalogs from sixteen colleges with a list of books recommended by Robert M. Hutchins in 1936 as books which every educated person should read. This list was chosen from an indefinite number of “best books” lists, because fifty-three of the fifty-seven books included were first published before 1860, because practically all classifications of subject matter were included, and because it was comparatively short. It was found that all but eight of the fifty-three books were represented in one or more of the society libraries checked, that the library of the United Fraternity at Dartmouth College contained thirty-one of the titles in 1824, and that the two societies at Middlebury College contained thirty-one between them twenty years later.

Without an extensive study of the catalogs of the society libraries it would be impossible in most cases to determine their value. Two catalogs from societies at Dartmouth and at Middlebury, which give date and place of publication as well as author and title, indicated collections of significance in two different fields. A count
of the entries according to date of publication showed the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Before 1500-99</th>
<th>1600-99</th>
<th>1700-99</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dartmouth</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middlebury</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The collection at Dartmouth is obviously strong in Americana, even after discounting the fact that there were two entries for some volumes. The earlier collection belonging to the Philological Society at Middlebury College was, on the other hand, strong in foreign books, including two incunabula, one from the press of Aldus.

**Society Libraries at Columbia**

To have discovered that the society libraries contained rare books is something quite apart from discovering that the college libraries ever received these books or now have them. Several college librarians, in responding to the questionnaire, indicated that they hoped to check up on the old collections that had come to them.

As bearing on this, an attempt was made to evaluate the collections at Columbia University as a sample, using the resources available in the Columbia University Library. The entries in other society catalogs, such as those of the societies at Dartmouth, Middlebury, and Yale, would have been easier to identify since the bibliographic information included in them is more complete than in most.

At Columbia only one catalog of the collection of the Philolexian Society is known. This one, for 1825, is, however, a typical example in that the only clue it furnishes to the identification of a book, other than incomplete author and short title, is the size! There were 415 individual titles listed. No printed catalog is known for the collection of the Peithologian Society library, but one volume of this society was listed in the accession book of the university library with the gifts of the Philolexian Society. Looking at random through other volumes of the accession books, 642 gifts of the Peithologian Society were found in the volume immediately preceding the one which contained 530 gifts of the other society.

Comparing the titles of the gifts of the two societies, it is interesting to note that one society contributed several outstanding American editions of nineteenth-century fiction, that together they gave forty-two volumes of Americana published in the United States before 1800, and that none of these duplicated each other. Moreover, four of the Americana from the Peithologian Society could not be found in Evans' *American Bibliography*. All of those from the Philolexian Society were found in Evans, although none is listed as being at Columbia University.

Since the society libraries at Columbia were found to be significant in spite of being smaller than those at twenty-five other colleges in 1830 and smaller than those at seven others in 1839, it may be inferred that the ones existing elsewhere than at the Columbia libraries were of material value.

**Dates of founding of societies and of publication of society library catalogs considered in this study.** (The first date given after each society is the date of founding; the others are dates of catalogs.)

- **Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa.**
  - Allegheny Literary Society, 1835
  - Philo-Franklin Society, 1834

- **Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.**
  - Athenian (Athenae) Society, 1821
  - Alexandrian Society, 1821
  - Eclectic Society

* Manuscript copy.

**JUNE, 1945**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College</th>
<th>Fraternity/Society</th>
<th>Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.</td>
<td>Athenaean Society, 1802</td>
<td>1830, 1834, 1838, 1861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peucinian Society, 1805</td>
<td>1823, 1829, 1859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown University, Providence, R.I.</td>
<td>Franklin Society, 1824-34</td>
<td>1826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philermenian Society, 1794</td>
<td>1820-24, 1844, 1849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Society of Federal Adelphi, 1799</td>
<td>1799-1800*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>United Brothers Society</td>
<td>1821, 1824, 1829, 1835, 1837, 1839, 1841, 1848, 1853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colby College, Waterville, Me.</td>
<td>Literary Fraternity Society, 1824</td>
<td>1852</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia University, New York City</td>
<td>Peithologian Society</td>
<td>1820-63*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philolexian Society, 1802</td>
<td>1825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H.</td>
<td>Philotechnic Society</td>
<td>1836*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>United Fraternity, 1786</td>
<td>1825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware, University of, Newark</td>
<td>Athenaeum, 1834</td>
<td>1836*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.</td>
<td>Belles Lettres Society, 1786</td>
<td>1825, 1839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emory and Henry College, Emory, Va.</td>
<td>Calliopean Society</td>
<td>1872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hermesian Society, 1839</td>
<td>1872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia, University of, Athens, Ga.</td>
<td>Demosthenian Society, 1801 (Franklin College)</td>
<td>1855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gettysburg College, Gettysburg, Pa.</td>
<td>Philomathean Society, 1832</td>
<td>1846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamilton College, Clinton, N.Y.</td>
<td>Phoenix Society, 1814</td>
<td>1827*, 1832*, 1839, 1839-55, 1847*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Union Society, 1824</td>
<td>1834*, 1835-58( ?), 1838, 1842, 1842*, 1847, 1847*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Institute of 1770, 1770</td>
<td>1832, 1823-56*, 1837*, 1841*, 1854-55*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Porcellian Club, 1791( ?)</td>
<td>1816, 1827, 1831, 1834, 1839, 1846, 1850, 1854, 1857, 1865, 1867, 1877, 1887, 1891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ΔΕΙΠΝΟΦΑΤΟΙ Club</td>
<td>1816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.</td>
<td>Loganian Society, 1848</td>
<td>1854, 1862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Mich.</td>
<td>Philolexian Society, 1851</td>
<td>1868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sherwood Rhetorical Society, 1855</td>
<td>1868, 1871, 1873, 1876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio</td>
<td>Philomathesian Society, 1827</td>
<td>1834, 1840, 1843*, 1853, n.d.*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.</td>
<td>Adelphi Society and</td>
<td>1837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gnothautii Society, 1845, 1849</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Manuscript copy.
Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.  
Franklin Society, 1831  
Washington Society, 1832  

Marietta College, Marietta, Ohio  
Society of Inquiry  

Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vt.  
Philological Society  
Philomathesian Society  

North Carolina, University of, Chapel Hill  
Dialectic Society, 1795  
Philanthropic Society, 1795  

Pennsylvania, University of, Philadelphia  
Zelosophic Society  
Philomathean Society  

Princeton University, Princeton, N.J.  
American Whig Society, 1769  
Clisophic Society, 1765  
Philological Society  

Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.  
Peithessophian Literary Society, 1825  
Philoclean Literary Society, 1825  

South Carolina College, Columbia  
Clariosophic Society  
Euphradian Society  

Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.  
Athenaeum Society, 1824  
Parthenon Society, 1827  

Union University, Schenectady, N.Y.  
Adelphic Society, 1796  
Philomathean Society, 1795  

Vermont, University of, Burlington  
Phi Sigma Nu, 1803  

Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Ind.  
Calliopean Society, 1847  
Lyceum Society, 1847  

Franklin Society (Jefferson College), 1791  
Philo Society (Jefferson College), 1805  

Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.  
Peltologistian Society, 1831  
Philorhetorian Society, 1831  

Western Reserve University, Cleveland  
(formerly Western Reserve College, Hudson, Ohio) Adelbert College  
Adelphic Society  

William & Mary, College of, Williamsburg, Va.  
Flat Hat Club  

Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.  
Adelphic Union  
Philologian, 1795  
Philotechnian Society, 1795  

*Manuscript copy.

JUNE, 1945
Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio
Excelsior Society, 1845
Philosophian Society, 1847

Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
Brothers' & Linonian Society

Brothers in Unity, 1768
Calliopean Society

Linionian Society, 1753
Moral Society
Phoenix Society

*Manuscript copy.

Sources of Reports and Statistics


Personnel in Cataloging Departments

(Continued from page 227)

alertness, self-confidence, perception, flexibility, and balance." According to Mrs. Nyholm, who listed the qualities above, these people could withstand aggressive and demanding pressures and make decisions based on "soundness" and "survival value."

Finally, a good deal more attention should be given by administrators to catalogers as people. This seems so obvious that one hesitates to repeat it, yet the epidemic of criticism suggests that administrators, in their great desire to emerge from a bad situation, have not always used the proper approach.

Clarifying Bibliographical Citation

Mr. Postell is librarian of the School of Medicine of the Louisiana State University, at New Orleans.

THE LITERATURE regarding the principles of bibliographical citation is quite extensive, and it is not the purpose of this paper to repeat what has already been stated but to make an attempt to clarify some of the precepts regarding this very important problem.

It has been very puzzling at times to know how to advise students, interns, residents, and younger faculty members who come for advice on how to arrange references or bibliographies for papers they are preparing for publication. It is not always so simple to apply the often repeated maxim to follow the form required by the journal to which it is planned to submit the paper. In many cases the journals themselves are not too consistent in their bibliographical citations.

Briefly, the purpose of bibliographical citation is to give authority for every statement or fact quoted and also to provide a clear and concise description of the document from which each statement is taken. The reason for this is that a citation is an integral part of the logic. It is a link in the chain of evidence, and its source should be so clearly given that no one would have any trouble in verifying a statement.

Undoubtedly the clearest explanation of the principles of bibliographical citation was outlined by J. F. Fulton in his excellent paper on this very subject. Anyone who follows the precepts laid down by Dr. Fulton cannot go wrong, but generally medical and scientific journals have adopted modifications of these principles which have proved somewhat puzzling. In many cases there seems to be a lack of clear understanding as to the meaning of "bibliography," "references," or "literature cited." These terms are used interchangeably, with little regard as to their proper meaning.

A bibliography is generally recognized as a compilation of the literature of a given subject. It is comprehensive in scope and is arranged or should be arranged alphabetically by author and appended at the end of the paper. On the other hand, the terms "literature cited" or "references" usually refer to a specific statement or fact and are arranged in the order in which the references are cited. These citations may either be placed as footnotes or appended at the end of an article.

For the sake of clarity and in order to have some basis or criteria for advising students as to the form and arrangement of their references or bibliographies, it was decided arbitrarily to divide medical and scientific publications into three groups. To each group is assigned a recommended form for the arrangement of its citations.

Group one includes those papers which as a rule are short and deal with one specific topic. In this type of article there is usually very little general information or what may be referred to as background material; the references generally are to one particular statement or fact. For these papers it is

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Appointments to Positions

On Sept. 1, 1944, there ended a fourteen-year absence from New York City of one of her adopted sons, Robert William Glenroie Vail. Thirty years ago, fresh from Cornell University, Glen Vail began his library career in the New York Public Library. Here his flair for books, American history, and literature was disciplined and enriched by daily contact with Victor H. Paltsits, Wilberforce Eames, and Harry Miller Lydenberg. He became an omnivorous reader of second-hand-catalogs and a haunter of the Fourth Avenue book-stalls, where he made friends with their proprietors. While still working he attended the Library School of the New York Public Library (1914-16) and came under the inspiring influence of Mary Wright Plummer, Mary Louisa Sutliff, and other notable teachers.

World War I interrupted his career in 1918, but after the armistice he was again at the New York Public Library until the fall of 1920, when he was called to the Minnesota Historical Society as librarian. There he had his first chance to display independently his combination of gifts as librarian, scholar, and book-hunter. In 1921 the Roosevelt Memorial Association decided to collect a library relating to Theodore Roosevelt. Mr. Vail was brought back from St. Paul to do it and spent seven active years on this task. He created an outstanding collection of manuscripts, first editions, and association copies by and about Roosevelt, to which any scholar of the Theodore Roosevelt period must turn.

In 1928, the Roosevelt job done, Mr. Vail returned to the New York Public Library, where Dr. Lydenberg soon made use of his unusual talents to assist Wilberforce Eames in editing the Dictionary of Books Relating to America, begun by Joseph Sabin, for the completion of which the Bibliographical Society of America had raised the funds. Mr. Vail became editor-in-chief in 1929 and so continued until the final volume appeared in 1936.

While engaged on this task, Mr. Vail was constantly delving into side issues which he uncovered in the course of the day's work. One excursion resulted in a study of "The Ulster County Gazette and Its Illegitimate Offspring," which was published in the Bulletin of the New York Public Library for April 1930. This brought the distinguished director of the American Antiquarian Society, Clarence S. Brigham, to New York to see the man who
could write with so much authority on a bibliographical puzzle of the post-Revolutionary period in New York State.

The result was that Mr. Vail went to Worcester as librarian of the American Antiquarian Society. Here his writing, both historical and bibliographical, was voluminous. Leafing through his reports as librarian reveals his wide and scholarly interests. Everything that passed through his hands he enriched by his critical appraisal and appreciation, and during this period his cheerful, unassuming help to many scholars, obscure and great, made him hosts of friends.

The next move, in 1940, was to Albany as New York State Librarian. In this post his enthusiasm and knowledge of the state's history led to a renewal of interest in the state library.

Mr. Vail's latest move was announced by the Trustees of the New York Historical Society in July 1944, to take effect on Sept. 1, 1944. He became their director. Almost coincidentally he was elected president of the Bibliographical Society of America. His own attitude about his new appointment is expressed in words published in the Quarterly Bulletin of the New York Historical Society for October 1944:

I will soon be happily seated at my new workbench in the old town to which one of my ancestors came more than three centuries ago. Here, with the wise and friendly guidance of a distinguished group of officers and trustees and with the loyal support of a hard-working and well-trained staff, I hope to spend useful years in still further building the resources of this famous old Society and in making those resources better appreciated and more widely used by the people of New York and the scholars of the nation.

William H. Carlson, who succeeds Lucy M. Lewis as director of libraries for the Oregon State System of Higher Education, began his professional library career in 1926 as supervisor of departmental libraries at the State University of Iowa. After two and one-half years in this position he became librarian of the University of North Dakota. In 1935 he was given leave by North Dakota to accept, for a year, the position of visiting librarian at Vanderbilt University. In this position he was concerned extensively with the work preliminary to setting up the Joint University Libraries now serving Vanderbilt, George Peabody College for Teachers, and Scarritt College. In 1936 he was awarded an A.L.A. fellowship to carry out, under the auspices of the School of Librarianship at the University of California, a study of seven smaller state university libraries in the West. This study, which stemmed directly from his North Dakota experience, was published by the University of California Press in 1938 under the title Development and Financial Support of Seven Western and Northwestern State University Libraries.

In 1937 Mr. Carlson became librarian
of the University of Arizona and served there until 1942, when he became associate librarian of the University of Washington at Seattle. He left this position to assume his new duties on March 1.

Mr. Carlson was president of the Arizona Library Association in 1940-41. In Washington he was a member of the executive committee of the Washington Library Association, in which capacity he assisted in the preparation of a *Program of Library Development in Washington*, recently published by that association. He was elected to the American Library Association Council in 1943.

Mr. Carlson is a native Nebraskan and a graduate of the University of Nebraska. He is a veteran of the First World War and was with the A.E.F. in France. He is a member of the A.L.A. Postwar Planning Committee and chairman of a College and University Postwar Planning Committee which has been set up as a joint subcommittee of the A.L.A. and the Association of College and Reference Libraries. A first draft of the report of this committee is now in process of criticism and revision.

John E. Van Male, who went to the University of South Carolina as librarian in April, has spent most of his library career in organizing the services of two bibliographic centers. As director of the Bibliographical Center for Research in Denver, 1937-40, he set a pattern for this form of library cooperation which he later copied as director of the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center in Seattle, 1942-43. One of the cooperative devices which he organized in Denver, the library book-purchasing agreement, later spread over most of the West. Since going to Madison College, in Virginia, in 1943, he has formed a volunteer committee to canvass the sentiment of Southeastern librarians on the desirability of forming a library book-purchasing agreement in that area.

Dr. Van Male’s experience as a college librarian consists of a year and a half as acting librarian of the Mary Reed Library, University of Denver, and a similar period as professor of library science and librarian of Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va. He is a graduate of the University of Denver School of Librarianship and the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, where he was an American Library Association fellow in 1940-41. His Ph.D. thesis at Chicago examines the ways in which state and university libraries supplement public and college libraries in Wisconsin. He is the author of *Resources of Pacific Northwest Libraries*, published in 1943, and of a number of articles in professional periodicals.

Eileen M. Thornton has been appointed librarian of Vassar College, succeeding Fanny Borden, who retires after having been with the library since 1908 and hav-
ing served as librarian since 1928. Miss Thornton goes to Vassar on July 1 from the University of Chicago Libraries, where she served as college librarian (1943-44) and, until her new appointment, as an administrative assistant to the director of libraries.

Miss Thornton is a graduate of the Library School of the University of Minnesota and has completed residence requirements for the master's degree at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. She has had varied experience in library work with young people. Before coming to Chicago in 1942, she had been a senior assistant in the Hibbing, Minn., Public Library, and circulation assistant (1933-36) and assistant in charge of seminar libraries (1936-38) in the University of Minnesota Library. For a year (1938-39) she was librarian of the Waterloo, Iowa, High School and for three years librarian of the Minnesota State Teachers College at Bemidji. Here she not only supervised the library but developed courses in library instruction for students.

For a year (1943-44) Miss Thornton devoted her energies toward reorganizing the college library of the University of Chicago, which had been moved from Cobb Hall to Harper Memorial Library. Among other duties, this position involved weeding the book collection, selecting new materials, and establishing the place of the library in relation to the units of the library system. In addition to this responsibility, in 1944-45 she assisted the director of libraries on various projects involving other units of library service. These included the study of circulation services, reorganization of library service in the university extension department in the Loop, disposal of duplicate materials, clarification of relations with the rental library, development of dormitory library service, coordination of the drama collections of the libraries, and analysis of the problems of fines and stack access. She also conducted a series of conferences with faculty members on problems related to both instruction and library service.

Because of Miss Thornton's clear understanding of student problems in college and her keen interest in the faculty approach to the library, Vassar can expect to maintain a high quality of library service.

James J. Hill, who for the past fifteen years has served as assistant librarian and professor of library science at the University of Oklahoma, resigned in October 1944 to become librarian of the University of Nevada.

Mr. Hill brings to his new position valuable experience in the fields of reference and of bibliography. Projects which claimed his interest during his association with the University of Oklahoma library include: the recording of the Oklahoma holdings in the American Newspapers, 1821-
1936; the listing of the resources of some of the libraries of Oklahoma and North Texas for Resources of Southern Libraries; and a survey of Oklahoma archives made for the National Archives Commission of the American Historical Association.

In addition to these achievements, Mr. Hill had been engaged in compiling a bibliography of the Cherokee Indians, 1540-1940, and a checklist of official publications of and relating to the Indians of Oklahoma. He has also completed some forty thousand entries for an index to the first twenty volumes of Chronicles of Oklahoma.

Mr. Hill served twice as president of the Oklahoma Library Association and always took an active part in the organization. The students and faculty members at the university found him keenly interested in their problems and willing to help them at any time. Mr. Hill will be greatly missed by his colleagues in Oklahoma, who wish him every success at the University of Nevada.

Ralph A. Beals, director of the University of Chicago Libraries, will assume on August 31 the deanship of the Graduate Library School, adding this to his present duties. Mr. Beals is to succeed Carleton B. Joeckel, who has accepted a professorial position at the School of Librarianship at the University of California. Coincident with Mr. Beals's appointment, Leon Carnovsky, now professor of library science and assistant dean at the Graduate Library School, will become associate dean.

In the three years since Mr. Beals's appointment as university librarian, the libraries' program has emphasized the consolidation of services, the building and coordination of the book collections, and participation in programs of specialization. The library has grown steadily through the purchase of valuable book collections in such fields as Mexican archeology and Chinese,
through the provision of services for the military and naval programs, and through the development of the college library. Important changes have been made in the physical quarters of the technical services, staff salaries have been raised, and overlapping library services have been eliminated. Through these administrative changes and with participation in library activities in the region, Mr. Beals has made for himself an important place in librarianship in the Middle West. He was formerly assistant librarian in the Washington, D.C., Public Library and assistant director of the American Association for Adult Education.

Dr. Joeckel returns to the University of California after an absence of eighteen years, eight spent as professor in the Department of Library Science in the University of Michigan and the last ten as professor and then dean in the Graduate Library School. Much of his early library experience was gained in California, where he held positions on the staff of the University of California Library, and later was librarian of the Berkeley Public Library and lecturer in the School of Librarianship. Dr. Joeckel is the author of the well-known Government of the American Public Library, A Metropolitan Library in Action (with Leon Carnovsky), and the forthcoming Library Extension: Problems and Solutions.

Dr. Carnovsky has been a member of the faculty of the Graduate Library School since 1932. He is the author and editor of several studies and the managing editor of The Library Quarterly. The Library in the Community, which he edited with Lowell Martin, appeared last year.
Retirement of Earl Gregg Swem

“Not in Swem” is an expression which has for the past quarter of a century been familiar to browsers in catalogs of out-of-print books. Since June 1944 the reverse might have been used at the library of the College of William and Mary; namely, “Swem not in.”

It is quite certain, however, that it hasn’t been so used. For it would have been both inaccurate and overfamiliar. The uniformly respectful address is “Doctor Swem”—his doctorates including both laws and letters and being by grace of Lafayette College, his alma mater, of Hampden-Sydney College, and of the College of William and Mary; and though Dr. Swem no longer presides over the library at the College of William and Mary of which he was the head from 1920 until his retirement last June, it would probably be in ill accord with his own painstaking accuracy for any-one to assert that at the moment he is not quietly sorting manuscripts in some nook within its building.

For fortunately the range of his interests has been so wide that the termination of one of them by no means condemns him to inactivity. He has been librarian, bibliographer, author, editor, collector. The combination of scholarly pursuits has been congenial to him. He is known to have declined at least one tempting offer of a librarianship which would have tended to limit him to library routines.

His library experience has had a wide range also—that is, before the two long chapters in Virginia for which he is best known. It began fifty-eight years ago in Iowa, his native state, where as a high school boy he was a summer assistant in the Iowa Masonic Library in Cedar Rapids. It was continued in Chicago at the John Crear and Armour Institute libraries and in Washington at the United States Document Office and at the Copyright Office of the Library of Congress. In 1907 he was appointed assistant librarian of the Virginia State Library in Richmond and he continued at that post until his transfer to Williamsburg in 1920.

It was the effort to make the resources of the Virginia State Library meet current needs that started his bibliographical career. In the decade between 1910 and 1920 he issued a series of printed subject bibliographies which culminated in the three-part Bibliography of Virginia—which promptly became a standard and gave rise to the “not in Swem” expression for items which are so scarce as not to have appeared in that work. What is frequently termed Dr. Swem’s magnum opus is the Virginia Historical Index, the open sesame to the genealogical and historical material in 120
volumes of seven serial publications. This was undertaken after Dr. Swem became librarian at William and Mary, though the major part of this task was accomplished in a little study in the Library of Congress during the four years from 1931 to 1935 while he was on leave from his library. The magnitude of these achievements may be suggested by the fact that the three parts of the Bibliography of Virginia total 2243 pages and the Virginia Historical Index, 2299 pages.

Meantime Dr. Swem had been attaining success also as an editor. His work in this field includes some issues of the Heartman Historical Series, the Publications of the William Parks Club, and the second series (1921 to 1943) of the William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine. Further evidence of his scholarship may be seen in the considerable number of texts which he himself edited in the first two series, and his constructive ability as a managing editor is well known to a host of writers who have benefited by his encouragement and guidance in connection with their contributions to the William and Mary Quarterly.

Both the bibliographical and the editorial activities have had the effect of increasing materially the collections at the two Virginia libraries with which Dr. Swem has had thirty-seven years of active association. There was a marked expansion in the state document holdings during his connection with the Virginia State Library, and at the College of William and Mary the growth in historical collections in a place which possesses also the material gathered for the Department of Research and Record of Colonial Williamsburg is bound to make Williamsburg increasingly a center of historical research. Dr. Swem has a decided flair for being on the spot whenever treasures in Virginia books and manuscripts emerge, and this is an occupation which is keeping him young and active, however much he may retire from other more routine pursuits.

Perhaps this variety of interests may be summarized by an enumeration of some of the societies in which he has been an active member. This list is probably incomplete. But starting with Phi Beta Kappa, it includes the American Library Association, the American Library Institute, and the Virginia Library Association (of which he has more than once been president and in which he tacitly holds the post of "elder statesman"); the Bibliographical Society of America (of which he was president in 1937-38) and the American Antiquarian Society; and the Virginia Historical Society, the Society of American Archivists, and the American Historical Association. There seems to be no formally organized collectors' association. But in the inner circles of that clan, Dr. Swem's "high sign" would be immediately recognized and appreciatively honored.

HARRY CLEMONS

JUNE, 1945
Aksel G. S. Josephson, 1860-1944

In the early nineties Mr. Josephson, born in 1860, joined the group of men and women, many of them brilliant, who were educated for librarianship at Albany. He came from academic circles in Sweden and readily adapted himself to American forms of life, even though he always retained an international view of his profession. In 1896 the John Crerar Library appointed him chief cataloger, his duties involving an initial organization, with the printing of cards and the handling of large masses of accessions. For twenty-seven years Mr. Josephson devoted his energy to the construction of the tripartite Crerar catalog, which has stood many tests of accuracy. He took an active part in the organization of catalog codes and attained a mastership in the many problems involved.

Mr. Josephson’s best-known work is his Bibliographies of Bibliographies (1901)—a bibliography of bibliographies of bibliographies. With great energy he took a leading part in the organization and work of the Bibliographical Society of Chicago and later in the development of the national society of the same scope. In the old Chicago Dial his critical book reviews were duly appreciated. His outlook was liberal, his views being based on experience with wide ranges of events and literature. He made valiant attempts at the establishment of a bibliographic institute for the support of needed projects. Owing to his absorption in official duties Mr. Josephson was unable to engage in larger problems, but his judgment of books was sound and impersonal. The Crerar lists of books on the history of science and the history of industrial arts appeared under his editorship.

A progressive weakness in Mr. Josephson’s eyesight forced him to retire in 1924, and in 1928 he was given the title of consulting cataloger, with an income. He took up his residence in the South and passed away on Dec. 12, 1944, in Mobile, Ala., after suffering a fall resulting in a pelvic fracture, at the age of 84.

A high appreciation of music and drama came to Josephson as a tradition from greatly gifted ancestors. His last years were devoted to writing (by dictation) esthetic and historical matter. He remained cheerful in spite of his fate. His sense of duty was unusually acute, and as a pillar in the Crerar structure he leaves a memory of deep respect.

J. CHRISTIAN BAY

A. G. S. JOSEPHSON

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J. CHRISTIAN BAY
Mildred Emerson Ross, 1890-1944

The library profession lost a most enthusiastic and devoted member when, on Dec. 28, 1944, Mildred E. Ross died. As head of the reference department of the Grosvenor Library she had helped immeasurably in rendering the Grosvenor a center of research activities in western New York. She had, through her connections with various local associations, assisted in making the library a living force in the community, and, through her association with students of the four local colleges, she had done much to train the youth of Buffalo in the field of bibliography.

Miss Ross’s interest in bibliography began when, in 1922, she joined the staff of the Grosvenor Library and came under the constructive influence of Augustus Hunt Shearer, himself an enthusiastic bibliographer. She assisted him in much of his bibliographical work, especially during his tenure of office as president and secretary of the Bibliographical Society of America. Miss Ross worked closely with Dr. Shearer as his assistant in editing the Grosvenor Library Bulletin and during his years of illness she became its sole editor.

Miss Ross was an ever willing aid to many of the scholars on the faculty of the University of Buffalo, who were given her sympathetic cooperation in seeking bibliographical data for their publications. She had been working on a bibliography of newspapers of western New York State when ill health made it imperative for her to give up all extra work two years ago. She had hoped to retire in July 1945 and had planned to devote a part of her time to bibliographical research.

Miss Ross was lecturer in bibliography at the University of Buffalo Library School from 1923 to 1942. Secretary-treasurer of the New York State Library Association from 1928 to 1938, she held office as president from 1938 to 1939 and was a member of its permanent board of salaries, pensions, and working conditions from 1939 to 1942. She was a member of the American Library Association Committee on Bibliography and was a director of the University of Buffalo Alumni Association from 1935 to 1938.

(JRrs.) Margaret M. Mott

MILDRED EMERSON ROSS
Several librarians have reported that plans are being made for library buildings or additions to library buildings in their institutions after the war. Among those represented are Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute; University of Georgia, Athens; Colby College, Waterville, Me.; Sterling College, Sterling, Kan.; and Colgate University, Hamilton, N.Y.

Other universities whose buildings are at least in the planning stage are Wisconsin, Indiana, and Rice Institute. These are in addition to those mentioned in the last installment of “News from the Field.”

The State Department’s Division of Cultural Cooperation has issued a mimeographed list of 374 items entitled Translations of United States Books Published in Brazil.

The Library of Congress has issued in mimeograph form the first number of “Biographical Sources for Foreign Countries.” This is designed to present a record of the sources of biographical information on living persons in foreign countries. In addition to formal biographical compendia, it includes such sources as national and local official registers, membership lists of learned societies, professional and commercial directories, and other publications relevant to the identification of persons and their professional affiliations. In general the list will be restricted to publications issued within the past twenty years. Copies may be obtained free by libraries upon application to the Library of Congress Publications Office.

A clinic on the theme of differentiated reading instruction will be held at the Pennsylvania State College, June 25-29, 1945. Although it is to be concerned directly with reading problems on the elementary and secondary school level, it presumably will be of immediate interest to the librarians of teachers’ colleges and inferentially to other librarians.

The Columbia University Libraries, Carl M. White, director, have received many Russian war posters produced by some of the finest contemporary Russian artists. They are reproduced in color by a stencil process. Many of them give credit to the efforts of the United Nations in the war against the Axis. Some of them have been exhibited recently in the university library.

The Sullivan Memorial Library, Temple University, Philadelphia, Lucy E. Fay, acting librarian, plans to establish a number of library fellowships for assistants in the university library. The program will provide service to the library and offer to those interested in librarianship preliminary training and experience. Selection of the fellows will be guided by the student’s college entrance aptitude and placement tests, his personal qualifications, and scholastic standing. Each fellow will work twenty-four hours a week and will receive six hundred dollars for twelve months, with two weeks vacation.

The Emory Woman’s Club of Atlanta established a memorial fund several years ago and from this it has donated more
the Field

than five hundred dollars to the Emory University Library, Margaret M. Jemison, librarian. This fund has enabled the library to acquire a carefully selected group of general books which would not otherwise have been added to the library.

The University of Georgia Library, Athens, Wayne S. Yenawine, acting director, has completed negotiations for the purchase of the Constitution of the Confederate States of America. This manuscript is in a fine state of preservation and carries the signatures of the delegates to the Confederate Constitutional Convention.

The University of Georgia has acquired the Nellie Peters Black memorial collection of manuscripts, letters, diaries, scrapbooks, pictures, and clippings. This collection was acquired through Mrs. Black's daughter, Mrs. Lamar Rucker.

The Joint University Libraries of Nashville, Tenn., A. F. Kuhlman, director, have been able to acquire through the generosity of Mrs. Henry Teitlebaum, of Nashville, the 2200-volume collection of Prof. Ismar Elbogen, noted authority on Jewish history and liturgy.

George Pullen Jackson, of Vanderbilt University, has presented to the Joint University Libraries an unusual collection which he accumulated in his research in the field of folk music. It consists of approximately two hundred volumes, including many rare hymnals, thirty-five phonograph records, and film copies of about fifty books.

The modern European history collection of Earl F. Cruickshank, formerly of Vanderbilt University, has been presented to the Joint University Libraries. It consists of approximately 1500 books and is especially strong in the period of the French Revolution.

The University of Florida has announced the establishment of the P. K. Yonge Library of Florida history. This collection of Floridiana, which is the most comprehensive in the state, includes rare books, maps, manuscripts, documents, and newspaper files of the last century. It has been brought together during the past forty years by Philip Keyes Yonge and his son, Julien C. Yonge, and has been presented to the university by the latter.

The library of North Texas State Teachers College announces the publication of the first supplement to the North Texas Regional Union List of Serials. The supplement and the original list record as of Jan. 15, 1945, all the holdings in periodicals and serials of North Texas State Teachers College, Texas State College for Women, Southern Methodist University, Texas Christian University, Dallas Public Library, Fort Worth Public Library, and Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary.

Since February 14

Middle West

the University of Illinois Library, Robert Bingham Downs, director, has had a weekly radio program called the "Library Hour" over station WILL. It is a half-hour program and begins each Wednesday afternoon at two o'clock.

The Beloit College Library system, which comprises the main, science, and art libraries, has been reorganized and henceforth will be known as Beloit College Libraries. The title of Clarence S. Paine has been changed from librarian to director, and Louise Smith has been made associate librarian. The director of the libraries is also chairman of the Joint Faculty and Administration Committee on Planning and Development.

Footnotes is the name of the new publication now being issued by Beloit College Libraries. It will list interesting acquisi-
tions, call attention to books and articles pertinent to higher education in a changing world, and disseminate such news of library service as may be of interest to faculty and students.

An endowment fund of fifteen thousand dollars from Sterling Morton has been announced by the Art Institute of Chicago, Etheldred Abbot, librarian. The funds have been established in memory of Mr. Morton's mother and will be called the Carrie Lake Morton fund.

The private papers and correspondence of Jonathan Williams are among the recent acquisitions of the Indiana University Library, Robert A. Miller, director. Williams, a nephew of Benjamin Franklin, was the first superintendent of West Point and is known as the father of the U.S. Army Engineers Corps. The collection numbers more than five thousand pieces and contains important material on the domestic defenses along the Atlantic seaboard during the war of 1812.

The papers of Hugh McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury under Lincoln and Arthur, have also been given to Indiana University. In addition to material on the financial structure of the Reconstruction, the papers contain valuable information relative to Indiana's financial history from 1835 through the Civil War.

The Western Historical Manuscripts Collection of the University of Missouri Library has received several important collections in recent months. Among these are the Hickman-Bryan papers, 1795-1920, which contain several hundred letters, account books, and business documents of an early Missouri and Louisiana family; letters and other manuscripts of Judge Frank E. Atwood, Missouri lawyer, jurist, and political leader from 1910 to 1944; papers of Forrest C. Donnell, Governor of Missouri, 1941-45; letters, committee minutes, and reports of the president and committee chairmen of Missouri's Constitutional Convention, 1943-44; files of correspondence and other papers of the Missouri State Council of Defense, 1941-45; and a small collection of papers of Congressman William H. Hatch, of Missouri, author of the Hatch Act in 1887, which provided for the establishment of agricultural experiment stations in land-grant colleges.

The Rocky Mountain West Rural Library Institute has been scheduled for three weeks from July 23 through August 10 under the joint sponsorship of the Colorado A. and M. College and the School of Librarianship of the University of Denver. The first week of the institute will be held in Fort Collins and the second and third weeks in Denver. The institute will pay particular attention to the special library problems of the Rocky Mountain region.

The Henry E. Huntington Library, San Marino, Calif., has received from one of its Friends a sum in excess of twenty thousand dollars which will be used in the regional study of the Southwestern states now being conducted under the direction of Robert G. Cleland of the library's permanent research staff.

The University of California Library at Los Angeles, Lawrence Clark Powell, librarian, has acquired the Cowan manuscripts collection of some six thousand pieces. Many of these items are of the 1840's and 1850's and include business and personal papers of well-known pioneers in California business and politics.

The Seattle Public Library, John S. Richards, librarian, has received a one thousand dollar gift from a local industrialist. Five hundred dollars of it will be used by the Friends of the Seattle Public Library in the establishment of a library for the
blind; the remaining five hundred dollars has been set aside for the purchase of additions to the library's business collection.

The Lutheran Evangelical Church, Missouri Synod, has presented one thousand dollars to the University of Southern California, Christian R. Dick, librarian, to be used in developing the library collection on the history of the Lutheran Church on the Continent and in America.

Since Feb. 1, 1945, Mrs. Evelyn Steel Little has been dean of the faculty and librarian of Mills College, Oakland, Calif. She was formerly librarian. Helen R. Blasdale is assistant librarian.

Ruth Walling is acting head of the circulation department, Louisiana State University Library, Guy R. Lyle, director. She was until recently reference librarian of the East Texas State Teachers College.

Cattie E. Kessler has been appointed librarian of Campbellsville College, Campbellsville, Ky. She replaces Mrs. E. P. Peterson, who is on leave.

Anne Herron has been made acting librarian of Murray State Teachers College, Murray, Ky., succeeding Etta Beale Grant, who has resigned.

Evelyn L. Pope has been made librarian at Dillard University, New Orleans.

Robert Maxwell Trent, chief of order work at the College of the City of New York, has accepted a six months' appointment as chief of technical processes, Louisiana State University. His job will be to reorganize the work of acquisitions and to coordinate it with that of the other technical divisions.

Garland F. Taylor, assistant professor of English, has been named acting librarian of Tulane University. He succeeds Guy A. Cardwell, associate professor of English, who has acted as librarian since the death of Robert James Usher.

Ernest M. White has been appointed librarian of the Presbyterian Theological Seminary, Louisville, and assumed his duties on Jan. 1, 1945. He was formerly assistant librarian of the Union Theological Seminary, Richmond, Va.

Helen A. Everett, assistant librarian at Humboldt State College, Arcata, Calif., since 1939, has been appointed librarian to succeed C. Edward Graves, who retired March 1.

Daisy Anderson, formerly librarian of Radford College, Radford, Va., has gone to Mars Hill College, Mars Hill, N.C., as librarian. Pearl Andrews is now acting librarian at Radford.

William Haynes McMullen succeeds John Van Male as librarian of Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va. Van Male is now librarian of the University of South Carolina.

John Cook Wyllie, on leave since 1941 from his position as director of the rare book and manuscript division of the University of Virginia, has been featured in Yank for his extraordinary career in World War II. He has the unique record of having climbed twice from private to lieutenant, first in the British and later in the United States Army.

Mortimer Taube was appointed assistant director of the Acquisitions Department for Operations, Library of Congress, on January 1. Taube was head of the acquisition department, Duke University Library, from 1940 to 1944. He succeeds at the Library of Congress John H. Moriarty, who became librarian of Purdue University in July 1944.

Thomas R. Barcus, librarian of the University of Saskatchewan, will become chief of the Exchange and Gift Division at the Library of Congress, beginning June 1.
Librarians' Degrees: A Symposium

The following brief papers were solicited as a means of exploring an issue which currently is of prominent interest. The bearings of the subject in the college and university library field are brought out in several aspects.

The Doctor's Degree

In a tentative outline draft of the problems which will face college and university libraries in the postwar period, prepared by the writer last year as chairman of the Postwar Planning Committee of the Association of College and Reference Libraries, the assertion was made that the doctor's degree, preferably from a library school, should be quite generally required for appointment to important administrative college and university library posts. When the outline was circularized to a select group of college and university librarians this statement received considerable adverse comment. Among the criticisms made was the statement that librarianship as such does not have the necessary richness and depth of subject matter to permit research at the doctorate level comparable to similar research in the older disciplines.

There may be a very real question as to whether the doctor's degree from a library school, or otherwise, should be emphasized as a requirement for the college or university librarian; but, in the opinion of the writer, there is no question that there exists in the problems, activities, background, and future prospects and opportunities of libraries of all kinds—public, special, research, and college and university—abundant opportunity for scholarly research. Indeed, because librarianship is a young and developing profession having tremendous social, cultural, and even economic, potentialities and implications, it offers an especially rich field for systematic study, thought, and investigation. Much of this can and should be for the doctor's degree, or at least of the quality and standards required for such a degree. For real vitality in our profession, of course, much of our writing, discussion, and investigation needs to be carried on, as to some extent it has been, by mature and experienced workers and thinkers already active in the library field. The traditions of librarianship and the present organization of our libraries, however, are not conducive to mature scholarly activity of this kind, except for a few administrators, and even they can accomplish such study only under difficulties.

No one in the learned world questions advanced research in such well and minutely tilled scholarly fields as literature and history. Indeed, the most learned men in fields such as these are often thought of as typifying scholarship at its best. The young aspirant to advanced learning in these and many other older disciplines, however, is often compelled to concern himself with a subject so minute and obscure that his work, as often as not, constitutes more of an intensive drill in research methods and training in scholarly attitudes and traditions than an important and significant contribution to the life and welfare of the world. Painstaking and carefully wrought contributions of this kind repose on the shelves of college and university libraries everywhere. They represent a contribution to the sum total of human knowledge, perhaps, but they are no longer of much interest to anyone except their authors and occasionally to other industrious and patient neophytes embarking on similar studies.

As contrasted with this situation, the young scholar launching out on serious study and investigation of matters pertaining to librarianship has a fairly virgin field before him, susceptible to a variety of treatment—bibliographical, analytical, statistical, or historical. This treatment may or may not
converge into one of the older subject fields. There is no reason why it should not do so in whatever way the nature of the investigation may require and still remain research in librarianship. Library research of this kind can, as has already been demonstrated, be carried out in the best scholarly tradition. To be well done it requires understanding, intelligence, and cultural background quite equal to that of other scholarly fields. The chances that such study will result in significant findings, and in conclusions of real value to the culture and learning of our times are as great or greater than they are in most disciplines.

The Graduate Library School

The work that has been going on at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago is offered as evidence substantiating these opinions. The doctoral dissertations of the school have concerned themselves with such significant subjects as nationalism in children’s literature, government and administration of public library service to Negroes in the South, state supervision of public libraries, public library service to school children in large American cities, the origins and backgrounds of a large metropolitan public library, selection of employees in large civil service and noncivil service public libraries, the publishing activities of the United States government, the place of American university presses in publishing, the instructional literature of sociology and the administration of college library book collections, an introduction to paleography for librarians, conditions affecting the use of college libraries. Several of these dissertations have been published in book form, and some of them have been highly significant and important contributions to our professional literature.

Surely the systematic and extended thought and study of library matters represented by these dissertations have given us more understanding of library problems than would have been true if the score or so of persons making them had instead been engaged in advanced study in such fields as history, political science, and chemistry. At least it will have to be admitted that these investigations of library matters are, potentially, a greater contribution to the welfare of the world than advanced scholarly study of such subjects as

the factors governing the awakening songs of birds, the writing of infrequently used words in shorthand, the preposition at the end of a clause in early Middle English, psychological and pedagogical factors involved in motor skill as exemplified in bowling, and the particle in Polybius and St. Paul, all of which have in recent years been deemed worthy of the doctor’s degree at our best universities.

More important in the work of an advanced graduate school than the dissertations prepared by its students is the part its graduates and faculty play in stimulating and directing scholarly thought and activity in its field. In this respect the Chicago school has had a definitely vitalizing effect on librarianship in the United States. Such publications as the series of library institute publications, *i.e.*, *Acquisition and Cataloging of Books; Current Issues in Library Administration; Library Trends; The Practice of Book Selection; Print, Radio, and Film in a Democracy; The Reference Function of the Library; and The Role of the Library in Adult Education*, have been contributed to by librarians and educators from all parts of the country. They are rich in content, and stimulating in the variety of treatment and method of approach. These and other publications sponsored by the Chicago school, such as *The Geography of Reading* and *A Metropolitan Library in Action*, have given improved tone and stature, as well as significance, to our professional literature. In all probability we should not have achieved this marked improvement if we still had in the profession no library instruction more advanced than that for the master’s degree.

All this is no blanket endorsement of everything that has been and is being done at Chicago. As a matter of fact the writer was among those who were a bit dubious about the early efforts of this school. In recent years it has gotten its feet on the ground and under excellent leadership has been helping professional librarianship come of age. So much reference is made here to it only because it is the only school we have specifically organized for doctoral work in librarianship.

Writing and publication such as that emanating from Chicago, directed specifically at library problems, would never be produced by persons who take a doctor’s degree in some other field and then without formal library
instruction transfer their activities and interests to the library field. At least, it can be pretty definitely said that in recent years individuals of this kind have not, as a group, distinguished themselves by writing and speaking of the kind that promotes understanding of the many complicated problems facing librarians.

Librarianship as such gains little if anything from the librarian who adds another monograph, no matter how brilliant or penetrating, to the already numerous contributions in the fields of English literature, history, or law. Indeed, the author of such a study will more likely than not be regarded by his subject field colleagues as a misguided brother who has strayed from the ranks of the anointed. Certainly neither they nor the academic world at large will think highly of librarianship as such because of such nonlibrary scholarly writings.

It is not too difficult to find instances of libraries whose administrative machinery has pretty well gone to seed because their administrators have been busy with scholarly work in a subject field, devoting their right hand to it and leaving their left, perhaps through an assistant or associate librarian, to run the library. Librarianship, in the true sense, requires all the time, study, thought, and energy of its practitioners. The more such whole-souled devotion to library matters we have on the part of librarians, whatever their backgrounds, the more likely we will be to solve our problems brilliantly and to raise librarianship to the stature of a true profession.

Degrees of Both Types

This paper does not contend that holders of important library positions should in the future exclusively hold the library school doctor's degree. Neither does it take the position that there is no place within our ranks at this time for the person with a doctor's degree in a field other than librarianship and without formal education for librarianship. It does insist that all persons holding important library posts, whatever their background and preparation, from the moment of their acceptance of such a position, owe to their library their wholehearted interest and all their working time and to librarianship in general the most intelligent contribution to its problems of which they are capable. Naturally this obligation cannot be fulfilled if scholarly writing and investigation is being carried on in some field other than librarianship.

Librarians, quite as much as other professional workers, need to take seriously the statement from Francis Bacon, for many years carried at the masthead of the Publishers' Weekly: "I hold every man a debtor to his profession, from which, as men of course do seek to receive countenance and profit, so ought they of duty to endeavor themselves, by way of amends, to be a help and ornament thereunto."

In the present stage of our development and of our library schools, there is room for persons with the doctor's degree in the library field and in the older and well-established disciplines, too. Other things being equal, however, the individual with the library school degree should be better qualified for an administrative post, and the person with a degree in another field, for the direction of the development and use of the division or subject field of a library coinciding with the field of his degree.

More and more, however, the library schools may be expected and should be urged to prepare persons with qualifications in both directions. Obviously, if the library school doctor's degree comes to be generally accepted as a necessary qualification for college library posts, in chief administrative and important subordinate positions, then we shall need in the country more than one school offering such degrees. If so, these schools should of course be located geographically, perhaps one on the West Coast and one on the East Coast. Permanent reliance of the profession on one school for its best prepared people must eventually mean a certain amount of professional inbreeding.

Perhaps in the postwar period the doctor's degree, of whatever type, will not in higher education generally be regarded so important and essential as it has been in recent years. If the educational reforms now being advocated by many educators materialize, less attention will be given to labels and more to personality, native ability, and actual performance. If so, and if the persons selected for important posts are held to and expected to meet the high standards which the doctor's
degree at its best symbolizes, this will be a healthy and desirable development.

The writer has long been of the opinion that the concern in library circles over the qualifications of the chief librarian has been somewhat misplaced. These qualifications have been frequently and sometimes rather extravagantly stated, as is indicated by Lawrence Thompson's article, "Many Opinions." It seems logical that the way to develop a professional group of strong, competent people in any field is to get them in at the bottom. Melvil Dewey, who, probably more than any other individual who has labored in the library field, gave it his whole-hearted and all-out thought and effort and was an "ornament thereunto," had this to say on the matter, "The library school is weak in many of its graduates, but, as I say to every class, we can only find out what is in the people who come to us. If a man is born of poor fibre, of poor fibre he will remain; you can polish an agate, you can polish mahogany, but you can't polish a pumpkin—and if a third-rate man comes to a library school, and the Lord made him third-rate, he will be a third-rate librarian to the end of the chapter." 1

The immediate thought that the library school critic will advance here is, why accept the pumpkins in the library schools? It can be said in reply that library schools do not now knowingly admit inferior people any more than they did in Dewey's time. Their present concern over admitting promising people to their classes is typified by the following statement by a library school director, "... unless, year after year, we can attract and develop superior young men and women, each group in turn superior to the previous one, there is little chance of progress." 2

Scholastic requirements for entrance to our schools are high. Most persons admitted to them, in prewar days at least, were undoubtedly in the upper brackets of scholastic marks. Unfortunately, success in the profession, especially in administrative positions, does not always correspond with scholastic ability. Pending more reliable ways of determining future achievement than we now have, our schools will have to continue to rely on judgment and intuition as much as on paper records in admitting candidates. In doing this they will very likely admit some persons who do not seem too promising on paper or in personality but who turn out well. They will also probably admit some individuals, apparently full of promise on every score, who will not be successful librarians. After all, no profession has been able to keep out all the pumpkins.

We are now having an active interest in recruiting for librarianship. Some of this may be no more than a temporary effort to meet the war-created shortages which librarianship shares with every other profession. This present concern about getting young people into our ranks should be sustained and continuing and especially directed toward getting more and better young men into the field than has ever before been true. If these efforts meet with success and if each individual library will make a conscious effort to develop the abilities and aptitudes of its younger staff members, encouraging and directing their professional growth, then the best of our young men and women will gravitate readily into advanced library instruction and thus be prepared, both academically and by experience, for important posts.

A Managerial Process

The administration of a library is more of a managerial than a scholarly process. The larger the library becomes the more important good management is and the more obvious its lack becomes. Since the college library serves scholars, its director must know and understand their problems. He will do this better and meet needs of his institution more effectively if he has devoted scholarly study to the problems of administering libraries rather than to some other subject field, but all the doctor's degrees in the world will not take the place of native ability and aptitude for organization and the successful working with and handling of people. Certainly without these important qualifications the library administrator is doomed to failure, no matter into what stratosphere of academic preparation his training may extend. In the final analysis, as Sydney Mitchell has said, it is the persons who have what it

3 McDiarmid, E. W. "Recruiting for Librarianship." In Illinois Contributions to Librarianship, No. 1, p. 82.
takes who will succeed. Men and women of this kind constitute the mahogany and agate referred to by Dewey. Our fundamental problem, neither simple nor easy, is to get them into the profession. Once we have them, it is our responsibility to see that they are properly polished, through carefully directed experience and through advanced library school instruction.—William H. Carlson, director of libraries, Oregon State System of Higher Education, and librarian, Oregon State College.

Advanced Degrees in Subject Fields

The question of the place of advanced degrees in subject fields in education for librarianship stands out sharply when one surveys the literature on this subject which has appeared since the Williamson report in 1923. There seems to be general agreement that the three most important factors in the development of library leaders are personal qualities and characteristics, proper academic and professional education, and adequate experience. There also appears to be general agreement with Williamson's statement that "The least important part of the librarian's equipment is that which the library school gives him."

The first issue of College and Research Libraries included a symposium on essentials in the training of university librarians, in which Dean Wilson defended the Ph.D. degree offered at the Graduate Library School and Mitchell, Williamson, Kerner, Van Patten, and White supported the case for subject specialization to the Ph.D. level. Since the arguments for specialization in a subject field for university chief librarians presented in this earlier symposium appear fully as strong and valid today as they did five years ago, they will not be repeated here. This paper will be devoted primarily to a consideration of education beyond the bachelor's degree for prospective librarians or librarians in service who expect to fill positions of responsibility, administrative or nonadministrative, in any public, college, university, or special library. It is assumed that a one-year course in a library school is a basic part of the librarian's preparation.

The librarian who wishes to take a master's degree has a choice of practically any subject field from numerous universities or colleges or of a degree in library science from one of five schools. However, as Metcalf, Russell, and Osborn point out: "In the fifty or more years of their history, the first-year library schools have firmly established themselves. The second-year work, however, has won no such standing, although in all cases it is carried on in institutions of high rank..." Within the past few years these five schools have modified their requirements for the master's degree until now a maximum of one-half of the work for the degree may be taken in other departments and colleges in the university granting the degree.

The librarian in quest of a Ph.D. degree has a wide choice of subject fields in the various institutions which offer the degree or he may enter the Graduate Library School at Chicago. Here he will find a program "selected with regard to the needs of the individual student with the double purpose of (a) giving him a knowledge of the relationship of his subject to cognate branches of learning and (b) of preparing him for productive scholarship," and with considerable emphasis placed on courses outside the school. In making a choice here, the librarian is faced with the fact that "the effect... School of the University of Chicago [is] still to be measured." Since the five schools which offer advanced degrees in library science are placing increased emphasis on work in subject fields outside the school and since there is general agreement that the advanced programs of the schools have not won standing because of various


2 Chicago, University, Graduate Library School, Announcements, Sessions of 1944-1945, Chicago, 1944, p. 10.

COLLEGE AND RESEARCH LIBRARIES
reasons which are generally recognized and admitted, the advantages to the profession and to the individual of advanced degrees in subject fields rather than in library science begin to emerge.

There appears to be unanimous agreement that the library profession noticeably lacks librarians with an adequate educational background and particularly librarians with sufficient scholarly background to be acknowledged by teaching or research scholars as active colleagues in productive scholarship or even as possessing a real understanding of scholarship and its requirements. We are not yet "academically respectable" despite determined attempts to professionalize librarianship through advanced degrees in library science, and the library schools cannot and should not attempt to make up deficiencies in general education.

How is librarianship to attract men and women with better general education and more book knowledge than usually is represented by the bachelor's degree? The fact must be recognized and stressed that prospective librarians and librarians in service who expect to fill positions of responsibility, administrative or nonadministrative, in public, college, university, or special libraries, should have graduate work in a subject field, in addition to a knowledge of the purposes, organization, and methods of library work such as should be obtained in a first-year library school course.

Is such training to be taken before or after a year in library school? In the opinion of Wheeler, "persons going into library positions of real responsibility should have had, not only the four years with a degree, but some graduate work in a scholarly field before they go to library school."\(^6\) With the first-year library school course what it now is, it will be difficult to agree with Wheeler as to the advisability of graduate work before entering library school. The able student who has done graduate work of high quality cannot fail to be irritated by the approach and character of the first-year courses, and the chances are slight that he will gain a true conception of the potentialities of professional library work. The instructional program in the library schools has lagged far behind advances in organization and administration. As Reece points out, a probable major gain from a thorough reorganization of the basic offerings of the library schools would be an improvement in the caliber of recruits attracted to the profession.\(^7\) Until the first-year programs are framed so that they will be flexible enough to meet individual needs and to interest persons with high general capacity and unusual scholarly or administrative capacities, it would appear advisable to encourage promising librarians who had completed the first-year program to continue graduate work in a subject field rather than attempt to convince persons with graduate training that what the library schools have to impart is worth their consideration. The promising librarian, particularly one who has had some experience after completing the first-year program, does not have to be convinced that advanced work in a subject field is desirable and necessary. Such a librarian probably is far more likely to appreciate and understand the relationship between library work and the subject field than is the advanced student in a subject field who is persuaded to take the library school course.

The subject field in which a librarian does advanced work is primarily a matter of individual choice, depending upon various factors, such as undergraduate preparation, subject interest, and preparation for work in any special type of library. Carnovsky, after discussing certain types of graduate study such as cataloging, book selection, and finance problems, which spring from the library as we know it, points out that "when one leaves the walls of the traditional library and permits one's imagination to soar into the unknown of fundamental truths, in terms of which library activities achieve their real significance, then an entirely new field of investigation is opened—or rather several fields."\(^8\) After giving examples of some of the fields, he adds, "It may be argued that at least some of the fields listed properly belong within the purview of already established disciplines, such as history, sociology, psychology, and political science. Perhaps this is so; I am not so much

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\(^*\)Wheeler, Joseph L. "On 'Of the Librarian's Education.'" American Scholar 13:252, Spring 1944.

\(^6\)Wheeler, Joseph L. "On 'Of the Librarian's Education.'" American Scholar 13:252, Spring 1944.


\(^8\)Carnovsky, Leon. "Why Graduate Study in Librarianship?" Library Quarterly 7:258, April 1937.
concerned with prescribing where the studies should be pursued but rather with pointing out the desirability that they be pursued somewhere." A recent study of preparation for special library service in colleges and universities reveals that two-thirds of the librarians replying to a questionnaire considered a master's degree in the subject field desirable, and in only one instance was a second year in a library school mentioned as desirable. Of fifteen members of the University of Colorado Libraries staff who have the first-year library school degree, eleven also hold or are working on advanced degrees in philosophy, psychology, education, sociology, history, literature, and botany. Four members of the staff who held advanced degrees before taking the library course agree, on the basis of their experience, that the graduate work would have been more valuable and better directed toward and integrated with the library if it had come after the library school course. Two members of the staff who hold the M.S. in L.S. in addition to advanced subject degrees agree, after ten years' experience, that their subject specialization has been more valuable than the advanced library degree.

In speaking of a broad general education for librarians we should bear in mind that no person can hope to be acquainted with the whole field of knowledge, and a really deep study of a single subject or of a small group of closely related subjects will help the librarian to give sympathetic assistance to persons going through the same process in any field of knowledge. The criticism that the traditional program for the doctorate has a narrowing educational influence is seldom applied to the program for the master's degree, and current developments in our universities are meeting this criticism at the doctorate level, where a degree may be taken in the history of science or in American literature, with emphasis on its cultural background, or in any of the social studies, with particular emphasis upon that breadth desirable for library positions.

Three distinguished librarians went on record in 1931 with the statement: "We believe that specialized scholarship with or without library school training is always likely to form a basis for appointment to higher positions in the library profession." Subsequent appointments in the profession substantiate their judgment. Advanced degrees in subject fields appear to offer the main hope for a profession of competent librarians rather than "trained" librarians. — Eugene H. Wilson, director, University of Colorado Libraries, Boulder.

Degrees as They Affect College Librarians

Complexity of the Problem

The question of degrees for the college librarian is not so simple as it might seem on the surface. For one thing, all library assistants in colleges, and even some who are working in other types of institutions, may be viewed as potential heads of college libraries provided they possess ambition, capability, sufficient educational and cultural background, and good luck. Even the amount of library experience is not always questioned if the candidate has other assets. Again, there is considerable variation among colleges as to degree requirements for members of the teaching faculty, let alone people on the library staff. There is also a wide difference in the application of the corresponding status of the head librarian and the professional assistants, in comparison with the ranking of members of the teaching faculty. In some colleges there is a clearly understood policy that the librarian ranks with the full professor, the assistant librarian with the associate professor, and so on down the line; in other institutions no such analogy has yet been carried out as to salary or recognized standing. Local conditions likewise play their role in regard to degree requirements for librarians. In some state and city institutions standards are clearly defined and form part of the educational laws; in private institutions...
there has been less attempt to set absolute qualifications.

All the foregoing remarks relate to conditions which are rather outside the direct control of librarians themselves. There is, in addition, the fact that up to the present no person nor body has been able to state authoritatively the amount of training that a librarian needs before being classed as a professional worker. There are certain standards which have been set up by the American Library Association and the Association of American Library Schools, but privately-run colleges, at least, do not always take these too seriously. Recently there has been considerable attention paid to the curricula of library schools, not only from the angle of the basic first-year course, but from the point of view of advanced degrees as well. The Program of Instruction in Library Schools, published by the University of Illinois, has had much influence on librarians in the field as well as on the directors and faculties of the different schools. Postwar planning has also brought the problem to the fore.

Method of Handling the Subject

In spite of realizing all these different factors the present writer first attempted to handle her topic by expressing only her own ideas. When these were reduced to paper, the results appeared unsatisfactory. They seemed philosophical rather than constructive and, after all, they represented only a woman's point of view.

She next considered writing to a few college presidents, in the hope that they might be willing to offer opinions about librarians' degrees. She thought that the views of the librarians at these same institutions might be sought, and the resulting returns compared. The college presidents dropped out of the present picture after she had talked with various colleagues who assured her that the presidents would probably ignore the request or at best turn the problem over to their own librarians. Very likely that would have been the case, but a future study of contributions from college presidents alone might be worth someone's while. Instead of a letter or questionnaire, the interview method might well be tried.

There still remained as a possibility a roundup of some college librarians. A dozen Eastern colleges were selected, representing as nearly as possible an equal sampling of coeducational, men's, and women's institutions. Later, an extra women's college was added because it seemed too important to exclude. The final list comprised: Amherst, Colby, Connecticut College for Women, Dartmouth, Goucher, New Jersey College for Women, Pennsylvania State College, Queens, Rhode Island State College, Swarthmore, Vassar, Wellesley, and Wesleyan. A form letter was sent to each librarian, in which four points concerning librarians' degrees were presented by way of offering an opening wedge for discussion: (1) a first-year library school degree versus a certificate; (2) a library school master's or doctor's degree versus such degrees in subject fields obtained by librarians; (3) the standing of the first-year library school degree in comparison with a master's degree held by a member of the faculty; (4) the matter of whether degrees are as important for all staff members as for the head of the library.

Thirteen replies were received, of which twelve were usable. The thirteenth person asked for an interview to discuss the situation. Unfortunately, this meeting has not yet taken place; the opinions of this man would undoubtedly have had value. To offset this lack, one replying librarian (also a man) sent a second letter with further views on the subject.

Character of Returns

A formal questionnaire had purposely been avoided, both because it was felt that more facts could be gained by actual discussion and because of the increasing number of long questionnaires that are tending to make the life of the college librarian more difficult. Only one answer raised a plea in favor of the formal questionnaire. The writer said: "There is this to be said for questionnaires, that they relieve you from the necessity of speculating as to just what the inquirer wants. Unless you are uncommonly conscientious you just answer specific questions and let it go at that." He did not add that for this type

of problematic topic, any person answering a questionnaire would have to go to the bother of qualifying most of his answers. Certainly, though, returns from a questionnaire would have been easier to tabulate. Replies were most satisfactory from the point of view of the interest shown but they differed widely as to length and handling of the subject.

Some people covered the four points in the letter and gave long or short comments on the side; others wrote expansively about the topic as a whole and, incidentally, covered much more ground than could have been hoped for. There were at least a half-dozen replies that went into a discussion of local conditions or cited cases of individual staff members who would prove exceptions to any rule. Exact tabulation in regard to each of the four points therefore proved difficult, but a report on returns has been attempted below, as well as a noting of comments that seemed pertinent in connection with each point.

First-Year Library School Degree Versus a Certificate

Seven people reported that they preferred degree holders to librarians possessing only certificates, while five answers suggested that the technicality of a professional degree did not matter or that the problem had never been given any thought. One reply included the remark that degrees for department heads might be more highly regarded by the faculty. A view stressed in another answer was that the fourth year of undergraduate work, as at Simmons, would be suitable for qualifying for many college library positions.

Library School Master's or Doctor's Degree Versus Such Degrees in Subject Fields

 Replies to this item showed wide variation, and there were more comments made on the side than in regard to any of the other points. Quite evidently this is a topic that has been thought about carefully and that evokes a great deal of interest. Only two answers were decidedly in favor of higher degrees in the library field, five preferred such degrees in subject fields, while five others did not think it mattered a great deal.

In answering, some librarians confined themselves largely to the doctor's degree, a smaller number made specific remarks about the master's degree, and a couple attempted to handle the problem of both degrees. One person wrote: "Regardless of field, an M.A. or Ph. D. is an asset to a college librarian." Two answers included the idea that the curricula in library schools would have to be broadened considerably if advanced library degrees are to be preferred. Another writer, thinking along the same lines, remarked that a limited number of library schools should expand so as to be able to grant the doctor's degree. One librarian recommended having the master's work in library schools cut across several trends of the library and allied fields, such as printing, just as the curriculum for a degree in comparative literature attempts to do.

Several replies showed a tendency to distinguish between the field of the degree held by the head librarian and that deemed most suitable for other staff members. One writer believed that an advanced degree in a subject field would be preferable for a reference librarian because it would render him more useful in his work and assure reader recognition by the faculty and administration. Another answer showed preference for degree holders in subject fields except in the case of catalogers; in this department it was felt that the advanced study should be devoted to cataloging and classification. Incorporated in this same reply was the statement: "At the present time it seems to me that college librarians as a whole are definitely better equipped for the job if they hold the advanced degrees in subject fields rather than from library schools. That is my experience." Still another angle was stressed in the letter that stated: "We feel that the importance of a higher degree for the general staff member lies, to a greater extent, in learning the techniques of research than in the course content. For the administrator the degree in library science, we believe, may be preferable."

Standing of the First-Year Library School Degree in Comparison with the Master's Degree Held by a Member of the Faculty

Two people felt that the first-year work should be given the master's degree, four felt
very decidedly that it should not, one person thought that the offering of another type of degree might settle the difficulty, another considered the matter of no importance, and two brought in the difficulty of dealing with local conditions in certain colleges. A great many replies suggested that the character of the present first-year curriculum renders it unfit for the master's degree to be awarded.

**Whether Degrees Are as Important for All Staff Members as for the Head of the Library**

Evidently this point was not stated clearly in the letters sent out, as some writers interpreted the question to be whether any degree at all was involved, one or two thought only library school degrees were meant, and others considered that only advanced degrees were under discussion. The statement of returns will, therefore, be limited to some of the comments made.

One person thought that if a staff member possesses no degree at all, the hope of obtaining for him even an instructor's status becomes difficult. Two writers believed that higher degrees are being overemphasized for librarians and that personality and brains are the things that really count. On the other hand, four felt that advanced degrees decidedly help the librarian's standing in the community. One writer, confining himself to library school degrees, remarked that in his opinion such degrees are as important for all professional staff members as for the head of the library. Lack of sympathy with the person who seeks a degree as an end in itself seemed to be expressed in one letter: "Degrees . . . have their place as essential preparation, but I doubt if degrees regarded as a means of securing recognition and standing can be expected to accomplish their purpose." Another writer was very likely not trying to be humorous when she said: "Degrees are important for all staff members, I believe, because the faculty list in college catalogs is favorite reading on the college campus."

**Miscellaneous Comments**

It would, no doubt, be possible to write an entire article on these comments alone. One writer, who seemed pessimistic about recruiting, said: "... unless we find a way to bring first-class brains into library work I think that college and university libraries will more and more be run by persons with academic degrees and without library training." Several letters expressed the belief that as time goes on members of the college library staff will be expected to hold advanced degrees to an increasing extent. Only one librarian seemed to feel strongly about the situation that allows the appointment of a member of the teaching staff, without formal library training, to the head of a college library. This person thought, however, that while such an appointment is usually a calamity, "there is some excuse for appointing an outstanding scholar to the position, provided he brings prestige to the position. He should not only have a Ph.D., but should be nationally known in his field because of his publications, etc."

**Conclusions**

There can be no valid conclusions drawn from such a small sampling of the opinions of college librarians. It may be said, however, that certain trends of thought are evident among the twelve outstanding people who were circularized. Briefly, these trends are: (1) that the more extensive backgrounds, both as to professional training and general knowledge, that the librarian and his staff possess, the better; (2) that the number of higher degrees that are held by college librarians seems to help the prestige of these workers on the campus; (3) that up to the present, advanced degrees (particularly the Ph.D.) in subject fields are likely to be of more value than such degrees earned in the library field; (4) that library schools should give more consideration to recruiting the best types of people and render the ultimate goals of such candidates more profitable by widening and enriching the curricula, particularly the curricula beyond the first year of basic training; (5) that local conditions, whether in the institution itself or in the city or state where the college is located, play an important part in the need for higher degrees among staff members.—Harriet D. MacPherson, librarian, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.
When this symposium was proposed, dealing with degrees for librarians as they concern college and university librarians, several angles of the problem were suggested for discussion. Among these were the relation of library degrees to professional degrees in other fields, the appropriateness of particular degrees to the content of education for librarianship, and the practical effect of particular degrees.

This paper will consider only the last of these topics—the practical effect of particular degrees. Specifically, it will discuss the practical effect of the M.A. in L.S. or the M.S. in L.S. on the teachers' college library staff.

The thesis of the paper may be stated as follows: the most urgent degree need of the teachers' college library staff is for a master's degree that is on a par with the master's degrees held by members of the teaching staff. The expression "on a par with" is used here in the sense of requiring the same amount of time. In most fields of study represented in the curricula of the teachers' colleges a master's degree can be obtained in one year of study beyond the baccalaureate degree. In the library field it requires two years.

The problem presented by this difference in time requirement for the master's degree is more acute in the teachers' colleges than in most fields of library work for the reason that we are in competition with faculty men who hold degrees in their respective fields. These degrees have both a prestige and a money value. The public librarian is not bothered by this type of competition. Advancement for him is not weighed against that for instructor Jones, who has a master's degree. The university librarians are also much less concerned about degrees. They represent established institutions which do not need to bolster their reputations by adding more degree names. In particular, the master's degree is not much of a bugbear in university circles for the reason that two-year requirements for this degree will be found in other departments in the university.

Dilemma of the Prospective Librarian

It is common practice in the teachers' colleges now to require a master's degree, or equivalent, for any position of professional rank. An aspirant for an instructorship in a teachers' college can usually secure the qualifying master's degree in one year of study beyond his first academic degree. The would-be librarian cannot. He must spend two years for the same degree. Why spend the time and money to prepare for a library position when in half the time you can be ready to teach? If the extra year of preparation led to a higher initial salary, one could argue that the additional year is worth the cost. Unfortunately, it does not lead to a higher salary.

As librarian of a teachers' college it has fallen to my lot to discuss this problem with a number of young people who were trying to decide between teaching and library work. Perhaps this cost of an extra year looms larger in our community than elsewhere. Most of our students feel obliged to begin making their own way as soon as possible. When a particularly promising student shies away from the library field because of the bugaboo of that second year for the degree, what advice can one give?

Dilemma of the Librarian on the Job

It is surely desirable in a teachers' college, as in any college, to have a professional library staff that will be on approximately the same footing as faculty members of equal rank. This is important because eligibility for committee appointments, sabbatical leave, vacations, etc., is in part determined by status in the faculty. Here again the problem of the two-year master's for the librarian versus the one-year master's degree for the instructor enters the picture. If the librarian has had more training than others he thinks he should have more pay. If the training is the same in amount but the teacher has a master's and the librarian does not, then the argument is
that the teacher is the better equipped. If he is not actually better equipped, at any rate his name gives more prestige to the institution.

Situation in the School Library Field

Perhaps the school library field should receive some attention in connection with the teachers' college viewpoint. Everything said above applies with equal force in the school library field. A number of states now require the master's degree, or equivalent, for any position in a secondary school. We may reasonably expect this standard to be adopted in time by all the states. The master's degree, or equivalent, then will be considered a necessary union card for any candidate for a secondary school position. It may have a more immediate monetary value for school librarians than for their teachers' college colleagues.

The Bogey of Equivalents

One school librarian, for whom I have great respect, wrote me that she considers the possession of the master's degree is not so important as the general recognition that the B.S. in L.S. is equivalent to the ordinary master's degree. With this opinion I am unable to agree. If that one year of advanced study is equivalent to the work done for the master's degree, why doesn't the librarian have the degree? That is the question that eternally plagues both the teachers' college librarian and the school librarian. The problem of eligibility for positions is so simple when you can write M.A. after your name. It requires too many explanations when you haven't that commonly recognized passport.

How shall we advise our students who want to prepare for library work in the public schools or in a teachers' college? No doubt there are many answers to this question. My own advice to students in our college is to take the half year of library training that our school offers on the undergraduate level, then work for a master's degree in some subject field and take as many library courses as they can in the one year of graduate study involved. The student who follows this program may not have learned as much about library techniques as one who completes a full year in library school. It is quite possible, however, that he will be just as well prepared for service in a school library or a teachers' college library. Moreover he will have the all-important M.A. after his name.

Can the library schools do anything about this problem? Only the professional leaders in the library schools can answer this question. An amateur may, however, point out that times have changed since a second baccalaureate degree was enthroned in the library schools. Two of the changes that time has brought are pertinent to the argument offered here. They are: (1) the spread of library training on the undergraduate level in degree-granting institutions and (2) the rapid growth of library service in the public schools and in the teachers' colleges.

The still common practice of the accredited library schools of today is to require a bachelor's degree, or the completion of four years of appropriate college work, for admission. Twenty-three of the thirty-four schools listed in the 1943 A.L.A. Handbook have this requirement. Yet the first year of training offered in these schools is elementary. It is not based on undergraduate library courses.

Library training on the undergraduate level, however, is spreading and should make it possible in the near future to plan a year of genuine graduate work based on undergraduate preparation. This year of graduate study would logically lead to a master's degree, as it does in other fields.

The growth of library service in the public schools and in the teachers' colleges has brought a demand for a different type of training and, also, a demand for degrees that are comparable with those held by the teachers with whom these librarians are in competition for promotion and pay.

The need for degrees requires no further exposition. The preceding paragraphs have presented the case for an appropriate degree. The limits of this paper do not permit an adequate elaboration of the phrase "different type of training." Stated briefly, however, the point must be stressed that for librarians in these fields familiarity with the curricula of his school, knowledge of educational theories and practices, understanding of psychology, and close acquaintance with the community served by the institution, are more important assets than any skill acquired by long hours of training in complicated cataloging techniques that will never be used.
The needs of school librarians and of teachers' college librarians as outlined above offer a challenge to the library schools. Can they meet this challenge?—Charles V. Park, librarian, Central Michigan College of Education, Mount Pleasant.

An Over-All View

Present Dissatisfaction. The current dissatisfaction with degrees conferred by library schools has been growing since about 1926, when several of the schools were organized as professional units within various universities. This dissatisfaction is justified, and the time has come, if it is not overdue, for a careful consideration of what can be done to make the library science degree truly significant and representative of the type of the best present-day education in the field.

Twenty years ago, in November 1924, when the Association of American Universities went on record as disapproving the degrees of B.L.S. and M.L.S., their recommendation was the awarding of a certificate at the end of the first-year program and the granting of either an M.S. or an M.A. degree after the completion of two years of library science. The Association of American Library Schools and the Board of Education for Librarianship accepted this recommendation.

In 1926 and later, as the various professional schools of library science were organized under the several universities, there came the problem of whether to grant a certificate or a degree at the end of the first-year curriculum. For those schools requiring for entrance a bachelor's degree from an accredited college, this was a fifth year, and a mere certificate was not acceptable to the student nor of adequate significance to those libraries which had set up standards requiring a library degree for members of their staffs. The university authorities offered as a solution to the problem the B.S. degree, with or without the qualifying "in library science." This, also, was not satisfactory to the students. The first resentment naturally came from the school librarians. A fifth year of work in the school of education on the same campus as a library school won a master's degree for high school teachers. The library school student felt that the curriculum in library science should lead to a credential of equal value. At that date, however, neither university committees on degrees nor graduate schools would recognize the first-year library curriculum as on a graduate level.

During these twenty years, the accredited library schools have somewhat improved the content of their first-year courses and methods of instruction have shown a degree of modernization and scientific development. Now, however, a fresh approach to a more thorough revision of the first-year library school curriculum is called for. Professor Reece in his able and suggestive discussion of the question in Programs for Library Schools (Columbia University Press, 1943, p. 7) says: "With respect to both the content and the plan of the programs, it is apparent that the schools have not gone to the heart of the problem of revision."

It is difficult to overcome the inherent distrust academic hierarchies have in the subject content of any of the newer professional disciplines. This misgiving, in the case of library science, has been augmented by many librarians themselves, whose attitude to professional training, to say the least, has been completely indifferent. The schools can and should, without delay, combat this distrust on the part of university authorities in the offerings of the first-year course. Pertinent to this aspect of the problem Professor Reece has this to say:

It has been suggested that new programs might aid in defining the institutional status of the schools. This possibility centers in the perennial question whether the beginning courses in library science are of graduate or undergraduate character. The point is relevant in only a limited way, since the study involved is essentially professional and should be viewed as that. It is difficult to ignore it, however, when degrees and other credentials are under discussion. Anything that would render the programs substantial and fertile in content and unassailable in form might remove ambiguities and prove that, although primarily professional, they merit graduate recognition. This seems possible not alone because of the inherent quality of the revised offerings but also because some of their parts could be considered sequential to undergraduate liberal studies. (Op. cit., p. 16.)
This revision accomplished, the time will be ripe and the urgency great for an unprejudiced and objective re-examination of the curricula of the accredited library schools by the Committee on Higher Academic and Professional Degrees of the Association of American Universities. To this end a request should be made, by the Board of Education for Librarianship of the A.L.A. and by the Association of American Library Schools, for reconsideration of the degree granted at the end of the first-year course.

Needs of Libraries. Other papers in this symposium supposedly are to discuss the kinds of training and degrees suitable to the service offered in particular types of libraries. Written as they are by the administrators of such libraries, particular needs should be indicated and a pattern presented that will be suggestive and helpful to the schools in planning advanced curricula beyond the first-year general foundation.

The question of advanced degrees in subject fields versus advanced degrees in library science is a subject open to much difference of opinion. Unless the degree in a subject field is earned in addition to advanced courses in library science, the result may well be the continuance of the appointment of individuals with no professional interest or equipment. The subject specialist without training in library science will have to learn on the job at considerable expense to the employing library. With no assurance that such an appointee will ever develop a professional outlook, his interest will undoubtedly remain divided, with resultant mediocre service to the library.

The content of advanced courses in library science can be made as fruitful both in general appeal and in the prospect of scientific investigation as courses in the humanities, the social sciences, and education. When courses in the subjects of administration and management, personnel, public relations, statistical methods, history of libraries, social function of the modern library, the bibliographical fields of printing and the book arts, bibliographical sources of subject fields, book resources and their acquisition, organization, bibliographical description, the philosophy and principles of classification and cataloging, and guidance and public service are properly planned and the instruction in them is developed for independent research, they will offer a challenge worthy of the best intellects and the highest degrees that are offered in American universities.

Not until a master’s degree is granted at the end of the first year’s instruction will the needs of the trainees for school libraries, college libraries, and teachers’ college libraries be met. Public libraries may not generally require a master’s degree for their professional staffs, but if such libraries are to give the public service in adult education to their communities that they aspire to provide, the raising of the first-year curriculum to a graduate level will be advantageous in improving the qualifications of their prospective appointees.

Needs of Students in Library Schools. Since degrees are regarded as essential credentials in all educational work, the person in training for a library position expects a degree that represents a fifth year of work based on his already earned bachelor’s degree. He expects it and it should be possible for him to obtain a master’s degree in one year, as is similarly done in the humanities, the social sciences, the physical and biological sciences, and education. A credential less than a master’s degree starts the young librarian out with a feeling of frustration and with an inferiority complex in comparison with his friends and acquaintances working in other types of educational institutions. Such a state of discouragement, coupled with much work of a clerical nature that the young library school graduate is forced to do, often unduly retards his professional development, if it does not actually defeat his effort to advance.

What Degrees? If the first-year curriculum is raised to the graduate level and universities agree to grant a master’s degree to students acceptably completing the requirements, will the degree be such as to indicate clearly its professional character, or will it be the customary M.S. or M.A.?

There will be great differences of opinion about which degree is preferable. Notwithstanding the fact that the Association of American Universities in 1924 disapproved of the B.L.S. and the M.L.S. degrees, there is something to be said for a professional degree that distinctly indicates what it stands for. Such a degree would help to clarify the present status of the master’s degree in the liberal
arts and sciences and differentiate it from the degree granted in professional schools of business administration, education, and others, and in so doing help to reconcile the dissatisfaction of the graduate schools and the professional schools. The library school would then be recognized for the professional school it is and not be an adopted and unwelcome child of the graduate school.

For the doctorate there is an analogy in the degrees offered in schools of education, where the degree of doctor of philosophy is for the research scholar and that of doctor in education for the prospective teacher. For those librarians who wish to pursue a three-year program of advanced study there might be provided (1) a Ph.D. degree in a related subject field, with minors in library science, for persons interested in research and (2) the D.L.S. (doctor of library science) degree for others. The library school will, of necessity, in its curriculum organization for the higher degrees have to conform to the general university organization, whether this means that the work will be concentrated under a graduate school or be independent under the professional school of library science.

In conclusion, it may be said that both the profession at large and the library schools should endeavor to improve the situation in regard to library degrees, by putting their own houses in order with the determination of obtaining credentials for librarians of as high standing as the best offered in other professions.—Lucy E. Fay, acting librarian, Temple University, Philadelphia.

Graduate Work at Peabody

Starting with the summer quarter of 1945, courses leading to the M.S. in L.S. degree will be offered for the first time by the Peabody library school. The complete program of courses will be offered during the regular year, beginning with the fall of this year. Entrance requirements include graduation from an approved four-year college or university with a creditable record of scholarship; satisfactory completion of a year of training in an accredited library school; successful library experience of at least one year in an approved library; and a reading knowledge of two foreign languages, preferably French and German. Inquiries should be addressed to the director, George Peabody College for Teachers Library School, Nashville 4, Tenn.
Buildings and Architecture

The following is an example of a section devoted to a particular area of interest such as has been proposed for College and Research Libraries. This section was mainly prepared by Ralph E. Ellsworth, Chairman of the Committee on College and University Library Buildings of A.C.R.L.

Almost everyone writing in to the A.C.R.L. Committee on College and University Library Buildings for information on postwar college and university library construction asks one of two questions:

1. Are there new materials or engineering techniques that we should know about?
2. Are there new ideas about how libraries might be planned?

In response to the first question, it seems too early for anyone to speak with certainty. There probably have been many new materials developed which are not yet known to civilians. New methods of welding certainly will make for a freer use of steel in construction. The wartime expansion of the aluminum factories, which has been accompanied by the breaking of the aluminum monopoly, may have the effect of making aluminum cheap enough to be a real competitor of steel for construction purposes. New types of paints and varnishes should offer real possibilities for better wall and furniture surfaces. Various new conceptions of chair construction exhibited recently in the New York City Museum of Modern Art may result in library furniture that will be comfortable. Further refinement in fluorescent and even newer types of lighting can be expected, and it would be strange indeed if better ventilation equipment is not available after the war. In other words, the possibilities look good but it is too early to say at this time what materials may be available.

In response to the second question, three of the larger libraries are developing methods of interior construction and arrangement that break sharply with traditional practices. All three buildings are using unit type construction based on varying sized modules. The three libraries are those of the State University of Iowa, Princeton, and Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Following is a thumbnail sketch of the Iowa plan.

All floors throughout the Iowa building will have a uniform ceiling height of 8 ft. 6 in. Each floor will contain rows of columns 19 ft. 6 in. apart in one direction and 13 ft. 6 in. in the other direction, thus providing a module size of 13 ft. 6 in. by 19 ft. 6 in., or a dimension in the clear of 12 by 18 ft. Column thickness will be 18 inches.

Between any two columns can be hung a partition, a bookshelf, either single or double faced, or a partition with door or glass upper. Lighting and ventilation fixtures will be built into the columns and ceilings in such a way that the space in each module can be used interchangeably for reading tables, book storage, faculty offices, seminars, conference rooms, microfilm readers, phonograph record players, map rooms, etc.

Instead of a separate stack room in a special section, there will be various reading areas, each surrounded with shelving to take care of appropriate books. Book storage can be set up at any desired location. Space above the normal 7 ft. 6 in. can be used for dead storage or can be wasted; or the space could be filled with a blackboard panel upon which could be written with chalk pertinent observations on the books shelved below.

The front center of the building will contain fixed fixtures such as lobby, stairways, elevators, cloakrooms, and a floor control desk on each floor. Two corridors running from front to rear will divide the building into three parts. Off each corridor will be the faculty offices and seminars. Reading areas, conference rooms, book storage, and carrels will be located between the seminars and the outer walls.

The floor construction, as well as that of the walls, can be dry. That is, instead of being reinforced concrete or hollow tile it will be made of thin steel boxes (6 to 8 in.) resting on beams supported by the columns. Such floor construction offers the possibility of prefabricating lighting fixtures, ventilation ducts, sound deadening properties, and painted sur-
faces. The wall construction will be of the panel type, made either of steel, asbestos cement, or some one of the various types of flexible wall material. All the major library construction companies presumably will be ready with their own special methods of putting up this kind of library.

The term "remutable" is used to characterize this kind of construction. The term "libratory" has been suggested by a member of the Iowa faculty to characterize the type of program being developed for the building.

In breaking with traditional practices, the directors of the three libraries mentioned above should be humbled by the knowledge that three other men—Angus Snead McDonald, Alfred Morton Githens, and Earl U. Rugg—conceived this type of construction and, indeed, put it into a library building in 1940 at the Colorado State College of Education at Greeley.

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"Building in One Package" in the January issue of Architectural Forum. This is a story of the organization and construction techniques of the Austin Company. It gives new information on ventilating and lighting questions. Notice also the advertisement of the Detroit Steel Products on page 188-89. This is only one type of dry construction. Another type is pictured in the Johns-Manville advertising on page 162.

The American School and University Year Book is, of course, worth careful study. In the 1944 issue there are a number of valuable articles. The ones beginning on pages 25, 36, 60, 228, and the RCA advertisement on page 184 are especially good.

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As soon as conditions permit, Princeton University will erect a new building to house its library and to provide conference rooms, administrative headquarters, and individual studies for the teachers and students in the humanities and social sciences. The family of Harvey Firestone, including his five sons, has made a major gift to the fund for the erection of the structure.

The library will be located in the northeastern section of the campus, about where the school of science stood before its destruction by fire in 1928. The structure will form the northern wing and complete, architecturally, a group of important buildings, the other components of which are the university chapel and two classroom buildings, McCosh and Dickinson Halls.

The new center, which because of its concept of bringing together teacher, student, and books has been called a "campus workshop," has been a matter of discussion and planning by faculty and trustees for two decades. It will not only "remedy a shortage of storage space which threatens to stunt the essential growth of the Princeton library, but ... also provide physical facilities for the development of Princeton's philosophy of education, which is based upon the intimate intellectual association of teacher and pupil and the encouragement of self-education."

The new building will have shelf space for two million books, nearly double the capacity of Princeton's present libraries, and will lend itself to almost indefinite expansion. While all fields of study in the university will benefit from it, the workshop concept applies particularly to those departments that do not now have the physical facilities, such as their own buildings or laboratories, which bring the student and teacher into contact.

Carrying out this idea, it will provide accommodations, in each case near the book collections in their respective fields, for faculty
and students in classics, economics, English, history, modern languages, Oriental languages, philosophy, politics, religion, and various other divisions. Each student who needs one will have his own individual study carrel for his independent and thesis work. There will be about 500 such workrooms.

The bookstacks in the Firestone Library will be largely underground. This plan makes possible a system of vertical circulation of books from the stacks to the seminars, conference rooms, special libraries, and other rooms above, a unique feature which is expected to result in efficiency and economy of operation. O'Connor and Kilham, of New York City, are the architects.

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**Summer Program at G. L. S.**

The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago is condensing its 1945 summer quarter courses to a period of nine weeks, from June 25 to August 25. During these two months students in either the advanced curriculum or the bachelor of library science curriculum may enroll for three regular courses, or approximately one third of the requirements for either program.

The needs and interests of college and university librarians, school librarians, and public librarians are all well represented in the list of fourteen advanced courses scheduled for the summer. These offerings include both basic courses for new students and also additional courses for former students continuing their programs of study.

In the B.L.S. curriculum, open to college graduates, a second group of courses in the three-summer cycle is scheduled. These courses are open both to former students and to beginners.

The six-weeks Workshop for School Librarians (June 25 to August 4) will again be directed by Mildred L. Batchelder, school and children's library specialist of the American Library Association. The activities of the workshop will be directed at the consideration of special problems and projects of experienced school librarians and teacher-librarians, but all registrants will participate in the sessions of the workshop in secondary and elementary education conducted by specialists in these fields in the department of education.

Tentative plans for the tenth annual institute of the Graduate Library School have been made for the summer of 1945. A program is under consideration on the principles and techniques of personnel administration, to be discussed by specialists from libraries, government, and industry. The tentative dates are August 27 to September 1. Final decisions regarding the institute will depend on transportation facilities available. Later announcements will be made if the institute is to be held.

Correspondence regarding any phase of the school's program is invited.

Carleton B. Joeckel, Dean

**JUNE, 1945**
Early Maps of the Pacific


If the student of history is able to grasp the vital relationship between cartography and the present state of world politics, economics, and military strategy, he will read this paper carefully, including all footnotes, with a full appreciation of its significance and will derive from it a healthy respect for cartography as a world force. Ancient and out-of-date maps will assume a new importance in his conception of history, and the present world conflict, with its inevitable geographic upheavals, will be seen as merely another chapter in Mr. Wroth's story, which is the very ancient, universal struggle for world conquest, the history of which can best be understood by means of maps and charts.

The author of this study has successfully accomplished his purpose, which was "to relate in a concise and ordered manner the history of the significant voyages, the dreams, the frustrations, the chimerical imaginings through which the Pacific and Indian Ocean areas became known to the Western World." The timeliness of the work will be obvious to the reader if he is aware of our appalling ignorance of the Pacific area prior to the outbreak of hostilities with Japan. For while our national mapping agencies have brought up to date the spotty maps and charts made during the past hundred years, this monograph covers the almost forgotten period from the earliest records up to the year 1800.

"Today," says Mr. Wroth, "a new world has thrust itself into the consciousness of Americans and Europeans," a world which will continue to exert an ever-increasing force on our private interests and public policies, both domestic and foreign, for many years to come. It is, therefore, high time we examined this unfamiliar world historically as well as cartographically.

Mr. Wroth traces the mapping of the Pacific from the days when the pilots' phrase, "position doubtful," applied to most of the places on the earth, when both the nature and extent of the land and water between the western coast of Europe and the eastern shores of Asia were subjects of philosophical discussion and geographic speculation devoid of factual data. As the story unfolds we learn how rumor was followed by exploration, which in turn led to maps and charts, crude and distorted at first, subjects of bitter controversies and disastrous voyages, until gradually the facts were sifted to form the basis of accurate documents on which navigators and potentates could depend.

The cartography of the Pacific developed in three parallel columns. In the first was the scientific map, typified by the mathematical products of Claudius Ptolemy, Alexandrian geographer who flourished about 150 A.D. In the second were the ecclesiastical maps conceived in ancient Greece and propagated for three thousand years for the edification of the uncritical who lived by faith alone. The third column stemmed from the earliest portolan charts, strictly utilitarian products made by men who sailed the seas, and hence most frequently accurate, within their limited scope. Errors on scientific and ecclesiastical maps and charts might bring academic censure to their compilers, but errors on portolan charts cost lives and precious cargoes.

The prototypes of the scientific map and the sea chart of today survived and developed, Mr. Wroth points out, "because the scientific production learned to go to the utilitarian for its subject matter, while the utilitarian borrowed from the scientific its learned system of construction." But the ecclesiastical map, while retarding the development of the other two, remained barren, contributing little but confusion to the evolving chart of the world until finally it died, without issue, a natural death. This not unusual admixture of science, fantasy, and cold practical fact produced some weird cartographic results, and the author
brings out the retrogression as well as pro-
gression of cartographic publications through-
out the years. "The force of bad example," he points out, "is a characteristic in the lives of maps as of men."

Mr. Wroth follows his subject closely and, while he is telling a story, the reader is not allowed to forget that the author is also talking maps and charts. He uses references to maps in his footnotes, instead of the usual quotations from historical manuscripts, to document his statements. In fact, twenty-eight of the forty-one “works most frequently cited in notes” appended to the text, are studies on cartography, and several others are borderline works leaning strongly toward the subject of maps. Also appended is a list of 104 of the principal maps mentioned, arranged in chronological order, with notes in each case as to the location of the particular copy consulted.

Special mention should be made of the twenty-two folding plates bound in with the text which are reproductions, in most cases reduced in size, of some of the most unusual maps and charts referred to. Besides adding to the general usefulness of the text as a reference work, they present to the reader, in some cases for the first time, rare treasures which many persons may never be privileged to see in the original. Some of these documents have long since been lost or destroyed, but their influence on cartographic history is incontestable. The reproductions are something of an achievement in themselves, and the collotype process has produced a finished product which is both attractive and remarkably legible.

This publication, a few copies of which are available in book form, separately paginated and with an index, presents a subject and a body of literature which is all too unfamiliar to geographers and historians of the present day. And yet it is no more possible to understand the history of the ancient Pacific without recourse to maps and charts than it is to study intelligently the present war in that area without them.—Lloyd A. Brown, li-

Anniversaries and Holidays

Anniversaries and Holidays; A Calendar of Days and How to Observe Them. Mary Emogene Hazeltine. Second edition, completely revised with the editorial assistance of Judith K. Sollenberger. American Li-

The announcement that an excellent and time-tested reference tool has been revised is always good news to the reference librarian. Acquaintance with the first edition of Miss Hazeltine’s “calendar-bibliography” assured us of excellence in the revision. Our expecta-
tions have been more than fulfilled; the new volume deserves an enthusiastic reception.

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The “Calendar” reflects trends in recent history and politics by the addition of such new anniversaries as Pan American Day, Atlantic Charter Day, Pearl Harbor Day, and independence days for Latin American coun-

The new “Calendar” contains 1387 personal names, approximately five hundred more than in the first edition. The names are chosen to represent all fields of endeavor and the new ones are chiefly those of persons who have become prominent in recent years, such as Stephen Vincent Benét, George Washing-

JUNE, 1945
corrected as a result of new research, nationality has been added to personal names, and the exact date of death has been given for deceased persons. A few typographical errors have crept in, as in the entries for John D. Rockefeller, that in the calendar and index being under July 9 and that in the classified index under July 8.

As before the "Calendar" contains brief or long descriptive notes for all entries, references by code number to information about the person or event in composite books listed in Parts II and III, and very complete bibliographies of historical, literary, and entertainment materials for important holidays. References to individual biographies, periodical references, and portraits have been almost entirely omitted.

Bibliographies in Parts II and III have been thoroughly revised, with new titles replacing more than half of the earlier references whose content is now obsolete or incomplete. Many of the annotations have been rewritten. Titles in the two sections are numbered consecutively, and juvenile books are indicated by \( j \) or \( jj \) and by notation of the school grades for which they are suitable.

"Books about Holidays" (Part II) is arranged by general subjects connected with holiday and anniversary observance. In "Books about Persons" (Part III) collective biographies are arranged alphabetically by author and subject. To the reviewer it seems confusing to find the general references scattered among the classified lists, since the typography does not show too clearly the lines of demarcation. As a bibliographical list, Part III would be easier to use if the general references had been placed in a group at the beginning.

The classified index is a very useful guide to names of important persons in various occupations or fields of interest, and of important inventions. References given are to the calendar dates with which entries are associated and thus indirectly to material in books. The classification includes fifty-nine categories and is therefore fairly minute; there are also cross references to related fields. A few omissions of persons whose names appear in the calendar have been noted; e.g., Ibsen's name does not occur in the list of Scandinavian authors, though he is included under "Dramatists." Several others are in both groups.

The general index forms an adequate key to the events and persons in the book. References are to calendar dates or to pages. Names of individual inventions are omitted and may be found only in the classified index under "Inventions." References to subdivisions in the classified index are not always included; for example, the only reference to chemists, physicists, and geologists, is under the general heading "Scientists." A few additional cross references are needed: from Twain to Clemens, from Raphael to Sanzio, from Loyola to Ignatius of Loyola. There is also a certain inconsistency in the use of Christian names in the index.

The few defects mentioned are minor ones, inevitable in any book of such broad scope, and do not detract measurably from the usefulness of the volume as a whole. One would look long to find a more satisfactory tool for use on holiday or anniversary questions, at least from the librarian's point of view. Not so storied as Chambers' Book of Days, more concise and comprehensive than Douglas' American Book of Days, less international than Spicers' Book of Festivals, more selective in calendar and lists than White's Conspectus of American Biography, less concerned with "firsts" than Kane's Famous First Facts and More First Facts, this is still the best general tool in its field.

For exhibitors, advertisers, radio broadcasters and script writers, and for teachers, clergymen, and clubs, this book is a godsend. For librarians, who need not only information about days and their associations but also a key to fuller descriptions and biographies in the volumes on their shelves, it is an indispensable tool. As a buying list for library holiday collections it is the most valuable bibliography available today. Most libraries will wish to keep both editions available, since some books on their shelves may not be analyzed in the new edition of Anniversaries and Holidays.

Reference librarians owe a debt of gratitude to Miss Hazeltine for bringing up to date this invaluable reference tool.—Ruth M. Erlandson, reference librarian, White Plains, N.Y., Public Library.
All too frequently, in years past, college and university librarians have been accustomed to meet and discuss among themselves—without benefit of others in the hierarchy of learning—the problems, practices, and policies of modern librarianship in its relation to education. That such single-barreled conferences fell short of desired goals or oft-times failed completely to modify established principles of educational procedures might conceivably be attributed to the absence of two most important catalyzing forces, the administrator and the teacher. Without them the librarian is in no better position to lift the level of learning than they are, let us say, without him. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine any one of the triumvirate accomplishing his objective without the supporting cooperation of his associates. In other words, the sooner librarians, school, college, or university, decide to invite their educational colleagues to serve with them in the solving of the perplexities of their profession, the more nearly successful they are likely to be.

The shoe also fits the other foot. Almost any librarian could offhand cite several instances in which courses were added to the college curriculum without his knowledge or advice. And there have been, amazingly enough, occasions within recent years when “complete” studies or surveys of educational institutions were undertaken without much or any consideration of library facilities. Only recently (1944) one Southern state, appointing a board of some fifteen or sixteen nationally-known consultants in various fields, undertook a “comprehensive” survey of all its institutions of higher learning. But there was no library consultant appointed. Not until a month or more had gone by and the omission had become embarrassingly obvious was a librarian invited to participate. In another instance a group of Southern college librarians were asked by their administrators to analyze their libraries in preparation for future coordinate expansion, but the feasibility of integrating curriculums as a prerequisite for wise purchasing was given no serious consideration.

Surely the time is now come for the triumvirate of higher education—the teacher, the librarian, and the administrator—to realize that their progress is mutually dependent one upon the other. Alone none can get far enough. Together, so long as there is understanding and a recognition of the fact that no one doubts the common goal, they can get far.

One evidence of cooperation among college and university administrators, instructors, and librarians was the week-long Conference on Higher Education sponsored by the Southern Association at Sewanee, Tenn., in June 1942. There representatives of almost every branch of the educational family met to try to work out the common problems of all. Significant decisions were reached. A common denominator of effort was firmly established. And as a valuable by-product came a mutual appreciation of the many-fingered tasks that confront all who strive to improve the higher educational status of the region.

Another conference, and the one which prompts these remarks, was the Conference of Graduate Deans and Librarians, held at the Joint University Libraries, Nashville, Tenn., July 12-14, 1944. Although primarily concerned with graduate resources in the four cooperative university centers of Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Tennessee—those representing “the emergence of a new pattern in higher education and library development which is the product of cooperation

1 The Southern Association Quarterly 6:437-446, November 1942.
3 The “centers” include (1) Agnes Scott College, Emory University, Georgia School of Technology, and the University of Georgia; (2) Louisiana State University, Loyola University, Tulane University, and the New Orleans Public Library; (3) Duke University and the University of North Carolina; and (4) George Peabody College, Scarritt College, and Vanderbilt University.
among institutions strategically located to render a significant regional service"—the agenda of this meeting were prepared jointly by librarians, teachers, and deans, and bore the endorsement of the Conference on Cooperative Opportunities in Higher Education of the Southern University Conference. Membership of the conference also included representatives from five individual university libraries in the Southeast (Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, South Carolina, and Tennessee) and, as consultants, five authorities possessing "extraordinary experience in fields of concern to the conference."

Working on the premise of the necessity of basic principles of coordination, the conference adopted as its purpose the exploration and definition of "the opportunities for the development of library resources for research and the improvement of advanced instruction and research in these university centers through cooperative effort."

Quite naturally, one approach to the many problems confronting the group was historical. Brief reviews of the establishment and meaning of the university centers led quickly to discussions of research work done in the South, the relative strength of supporting university libraries, the wasteful duplication of acquisitions and unwise competition, and, ultimately, the inadequate financial support of college and university libraries within the region. Here, it was frankly admitted, the South is "confronted with most baffling problems." In July 1943, for instance, Duke University Library (the largest in the Southeast) ranked sixteenth in size among university libraries in the United States. North Carolina, Joint University, and Virginia ranked thirty-third, thirty-fourth, and thirty-sixth, respectively; and, excluding Duke, the fifteen largest university libraries in the Southeast combined had fewer volumes than Harvard University. Furthermore, only one (again, Duke) of twenty-seven American libraries holding more than a half million books is in the region.

Baffling though this situation may seem, there is evidence enough to explain it. In the words of North Carolina's J. Gordon Coogler:

Alas for the South; her books have grown fewer—
She never was much given to literature.

Doubtless the poet had in mind the writing of books, while here the discussion concerns the buying of books. During 1938/39-1940/41 the University of Chicago averaged expenditures of $75,890 annually for books alone. In 1942-43 America's fifteen largest universities (none of which is in the Southeast) averaged $275,101 for books and services as compared to an average of only $90,700 for nineteen Southern universities, including Duke's high of $218,109 and Mississippi's low of $24,249.

That such comparatively inadequate university libraries exist in the South is a well-known fact. That their impoverishment is always to be balanced finally with the economic and social level of the region is another matter, one deserving careful consideration in any analysis. The South has been rightly described as America's economic problem child. With the lowest per capita income of the nation, the region strives conscientiously and not without some success to maintain dual public library systems, as well as dual educational systems, including, of course, dual college and university library systems. Briefly put, the South's nickel must go twice as far as the North's or West's dime. And that mathematical problem, a century old, is still incapable of solution.

If the South is to build and maintain adequate university libraries for advanced instruction and research, it must, as Library Resources and Graduate Work recommends, make use of every opportunity "for concerted library action," especially on the upper levels. This would include coordination of acquisitions, proper division of labor, logical disposition of gift collections, a study of deposit libraries, cooperation in document and newspaper programs, and a careful analysis of the problems presented by bibliographical centers, microphotography, joint purchasing, duplication, and interlibrary loans. It also includes—and this is of utmost importance—a careful coordination of curriculums for advanced instruction and research "in order to avoid needless and wasteful duplication and competition and to assure better coverage, superior graduate instruction and research, and more competent special subject collections." Moreover, basic cooperation is dependent upon clearly drawn lines of curricular demarcations and generous financial support of li-
braries. For these, as the book indicates, there is no substitute.

*Library Resources and Graduate Work* is without doubt one of the most important documents concerning librarianship to come out of the South in recent years. It has done much to focus attention on a problem so pressing and so gigantic as to be almost overwhelming—yet the way it was conjointly attacked by administrators, teachers, and librarians alike lends high hopes for the future.

For their significant contribution to higher education in the South, Philip G. Davidson, dean of the Graduate School of Vanderbilt University, and A. F. Kuhlman, director, Joint University Libraries, deserve the sincere thanks of educators throughout the nation. Their accomplishments, reflected as they are in *Library Resources and Graduate Work*, should do much toward charting a proper course for future Southern scholarship and research.—*W. Stanley Hoole, director of libraries, University of Alabama.*

**Wisconsin Manuscripts**


This guide is the work of the curator of the Wisconsin Historical Society's manuscript division, assisted by the members of the staff of the Historical Records Survey of Wisconsin. In the preface the editor says the collection contains over 720,000 pieces and 2,500 volumes of manuscripts, a vast accumulation for any society. Certainly it is one of the largest and richest in the United States in the character of its materials. The guide makes no attempt to list individual items, and packages containing ten or fewer items are not listed. But, as it is, any student may obtain a clear idea whether there is any major amount of material for his researches at Madison.

No one conversant with the history of American manuscript collections will be surprised at the richness of the library's resources. The Wisconsin Historical Society, in its nearly one hundred years of history, had in the formative years two of the ablest collectors in the field to direct its work—Lyman C. Draper and Reuben Gold Thwaites. Either Draper's collection of nearly five hundred volumes of manuscripts relating to the first great West or Thwaites's on the French in the Northwest and on the records of his own state, would make any society famous. The John R. Commons collection on the history of labor and the papers of the economist, Richard T. Ely, also are of more than local significance.

The Wisconsin Historical Society has assumed as its primary task the gathering of material for the history of its own environment. But in common with the practice among other historical societies, the collection has become national in scope. Whatever source material will help the citizens of Wisconsin to better understand the nation's past has become grist for zealous assembling and arrangement for use. A study of the guide, with its record of correspondence, diaries, minutes of meetings, reminiscences, personal papers, addresses, and public documents, should serve similar agencies and individuals everywhere in knowing what to save.

There are more than eight hundred historical societies, large and small, some very small, in the United States. That means one for every 150,000 people. The ambition of the American people to secure for all time the materials for their own history has become a major industry. *The Handbook of Historical Societies in the United States and Canada*, published by the American Association for State and Local History, Washington, 1944, and the Wisconsin guide are manuals greatly needed by those who would be intelligent leaders in an important field of modern social activities.

The United States may not have the monuments of the Old World, but it can have, if it does not already have, the best basis for an understanding of its own past. There is a growing list of similar guides available for scholars. Most notable among the recent ones are Howard H. Peckham's *Guide to the*

To historical students it is at times shocking to learn that material greatly needed has been destroyed or is hidden away in some unappreciative person's storage spaces. For example, to the Western Reserve Historical Society there came not long ago the full records of an interesting but defunct university in Ohio for the years 1834-47. They had been resting in a box of family relics all these years, a curiosity for the owner but unavailable for any serious uses. Whatever will help to enlighten the people of the United States on the usefulness of the papers in private homes and public archives is a national service of great value for the future. The librarians, curators, and directors of some eight hundred historical societies have an ever-present challenge. They have the chance for a mass attack on apathy and ignorance which ought to bear good fruit.—Elbert J. Benton, director and secretary, Western Reserve Historical Society, Cleveland.

Clarifying Bibliographical Citation

(Continued from page 249)

recommended that the citations be arranged in the order in which they are referred or quoted from and appended at the end of the paper. Each reference should be a complete bibliographical citation, e.g., author, title, journal, volume, pagination, month, year. This is the form used by the journals published by the American Medical Association.

To group two is assigned the papers of some length, including monographs and papers published in review journals. Such papers present a comprehensive study of a given subject, including its history and an outline of the experimental work accomplished. These articles contain a considerable amount of general information as well as references to a specific statement. In these cases it is recommended that citations be labeled "bibliography," arranged alphabetically by author, and numbered and appended at the end of the article. Throughout the paper, whenever it becomes necessary to refer to a citation, the number of the reference simply may be listed following the statement. In those cases where it becomes necessary to refer to a specific page in a citation, the number of the page may follow the number of the reference. As an example of the use of this type of citation refer to the monograph by T. E. Keys.2

To the third group is assigned papers of such a general nature as to make reference to any one bibliographical item unnecessary. To these papers it is recommended that the bibliography be alphabetically arranged by author and appended at the end of the article.

This classification has simplified the interpretation of the principles of bibliographical citation to a marked degree and has also served as a logical explanation in explaining the different forms to the students.

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